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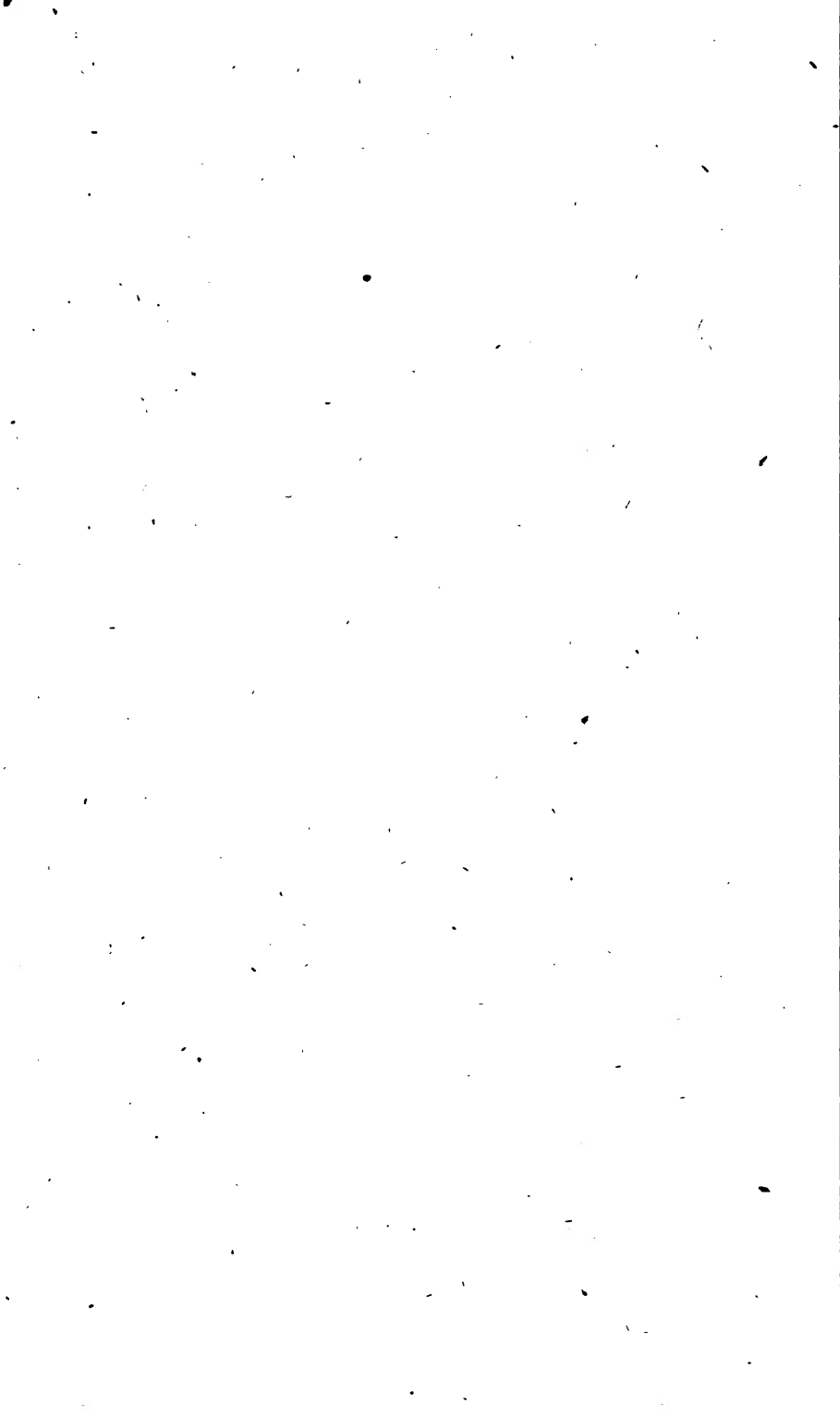








**THE**  
**CRITICAL REVIEW;**  
**OR,**  
**ANNALS OF LITERATURE.**



THE  
CRITICAL REVIEW;

OR,  
Annals of Literature;

EXTENDED AND IMPROVED.

BY  
A SOCIETY OF GENTLEMEN.

*A NEW ARRANGEMENT.*

VOLUME the TWENTY-THIRD.

— NOTHING EXTENUATE,  
NOR SET DOWN AUGHT IN MALICE.

SHAKSP.

QUALIS AB INCEPTO.

HOR.

L O N D O N,



PRINTED FOR A. HAMILTON, FALCON-COURT, FLEET-STREET.

1798.





# THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

M A Y, 1798.

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*T. Lucretii Cari de Rerum Naturâ Libròs sex, ad Exemplarium MSS. Fidem recensitos, longe emendatiores reddidit, Commentariis perpetuis illustravit, Indicibus instruxit, et cum Animadversionibus Ricardi Bentleii, non ante vulgatis, aliorum subinde miscuit Gilbertus Wakefield, A. B. Collegii Jesu apud Cantabrigienses olim Socius. Londini, Impensis Editoris, Typis A. Hamilton. 3 Vols. 4to. On superfine Imperial Paper; 21l. Small Paper, 5l. 5s. Boards. Cuthell. 1796—7.*

THE author, of whom Mr. Wakefield has here presented an edition to the public, holds a distinguished rank among the Roman poets; and, even if he were not interesting on his own account, he would deserve our peculiar regard, as the master of Virgil. It is unfortunate for the more ancient Latin writers, that, from the many and great changes which took place in their language, their works soon became difficult, or at least unpleasant, to the reader; and their fame was eclipsed by new authors, who in their turn yielded the palm to their successors. After the Ciceronian and Augustan ages, most of the writers preceding those periods were overwhelmed in ungrateful oblivion, and were rarely quoted but by antiquaries, grammarians, and etymologists. If the productions of Ennius and Lucilius, and of all the poets of the intermediate times, had been fortunately preserved to this day, we should not read them perhaps with that admiration which Martial ridicules in Chrestillus\*; but we should pay them that respect which is due to the beginners of arts and sciences, more justly due in general than to improvers, though these usually obtain the greater share of the reward. If the earlier writers of a nation are deficient in art, they are for the most part superior in simplicity, and frequently in force: their successors, while they perpetually filed and polished their materials, often rendered them weak and delicate. At any rate, a comparison of the authors of different ages would afford a liberal and rational

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\* Attonitusque legis, terrarum frugiferarum,  
Accius et quidquid Pacuviusque vomunt. xi. gr.

pleasure to the curious reader, as unfolding the history of the human mind.

Lucretius wrote his poem on the Universe, in an age when the Latin poetry had not reached that perfection which it ultimately attained; but was rapidly advancing toward it. His genius led him to philosophical speculations; and he fixed upon Epicurus for his guide. Though he extols his master with extravagant commendations, as it seems to have been the custom of the Epicureans \* more than of any other sect, he took the liberty of differing from him in a material point of practice. Epicurus despised all the liberal arts and all the elegances of composition; and some of his disciples even boasted that his writings were *οἰκεῖα δυναμει γεγραμμένα, καὶ ἀπαγάρητα* †, written by his own mother wit, and unaided by quotation or authority. Lucretius, on the contrary, quotes many authorities, and displays his acquaintance with the learning of his time. Of his extensive reading in the Greek language the poem itself affords abundant proof.

Though it might be wished that Lucretius had espoused a more tenable or instructive cause, than the Epicurean doctrines, that there is no providence, nothing after death, but that all things are produced and destroyed by the fortuitous motion of his atoms or *primordia*, &c. he intermixes so much truth, instruction, and poetry, in delivering and defending the principles of his sect, that every Latin scholar will readily bestow an attentive perusal on his work, and be thankful to any critic who contributes to correct the text of such an author, and explain his sense. It is now our duty to take a survey of the labours of our countryman, by whom this task has been undertaken.

The first volume begins with a dedication to Mr. Fox, partly in prose, partly in ninety-four elegiac verses; after which we meet with an address to the reader, containing an account of the motives and plan of the publication. The first edition, said to have been printed at Brescia, without a date of the year, Mr. Wakefield has not seen. The second, commonly reputed the first, printed at Verona in 1486, was lent to him by Mr. Cracherode. That which was prepared by John Baptist Pius, and printed at Bologna in 1511, was usefully employed by our commentator; and the Juntine and Aldine impressions, of 1512 and 1515, were also examined. Of Gifanius he speaks in such terms, that it is difficult to know whether he really inspected the edition superintended by that critic. He vehemently blames Lambinus for intruding his own conjectures into the text, and neglecting the authority of MSS.; he even suspects him sometimes of falsely alleging their testimony. But we see no reason, after making due allowance for haste

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\* Torquatus, in Cic. de Fin. i. 21. † Diog. Laërt. vii. 181.

and human infirmity, to suspect either Lambinus or Gifanius of producing readings, as from their MSS. which never were there. Gifanius, in his *Collectanea*, states various readings from written copies of other authors, which have been found in MSS. by later critics: why, then, should we suppose him to have been unfaithful with regard to Lucretius?

Of Creech, as an editor of Lucretius, Mr. Wakefield speaks with contempt, representing his reputation as far superior to his merits. With respect to Havercamp's edition, his judgment nearly agrees with that of Ernesti, which he transcribes, and which we shall transcribe from him.

‘Omnino hoc opus suum peritioribus non valde probavit Havercampus. Inter omnes editores principatus debetur Lambino et Creechio; huic ad intelligendum maxime, illi etiam ad criticam rationem. Sed, qui has res recte tractare possit, is, si suscipere novam editionem velit *auxilium* eâ, quæ hodie peritis probatur, et cujus exempla recentioris temporis habemus, magnam laudem parare sibi possit. Sed absit usitata nostris temporibus festinatio, et lucri cupido.’ Vol. i. p. vii.

The peculiar aids which have been employed for this edition are, 1. A copy of Le-Fevre's Lucretius, once in the possession of Bentley, and by him enriched with notes, which are now for the first time made public: 2. A manuscript, formerly Dr. Askew's, now belonging to the public library at Cambridge: 3, 4, 5. Three MSS. in the British Museum; the first on parchment, of the smallest size, of the 15th century; the second on paper, of the same age, ending with the 232d verse of the sixth book; the third, of a still later date, not safely to be trusted, when it differs from the rest: 6. A MS. furnished by Mr. Edward Poore, written by a very modern hand from a MS. 7. A MS. at Vienna, of the 15th century, the various readings of which were published by F. C. Alter, at the end of his edition of Lucretius, Vienna, 1787: 8. Another, containing fragments of the 2d, 3d, and 6th books, written, as Mr. Alter judges, near the beginning of the 14th century.

It has been Mr. Wakefield's endeavour, as he tells us himself, to exhibit the text with the true Lucretian orthography, that its ‘*αρχαίωνης* nitor, et flos ferrugineus veneranda vetustatis,’ might be carefully preserved. In the sequel of our review, whenever we quote the poem, we shall closely follow this orthography. In the mean time, that we may not tire our readers with an enumeration of such minute particulars, we shall only mention some of those which occur in the first book. The accusative plural is terminated in *eis*; we find *ventei*, in the plural; the prepositions (e. g. in *efficere*), are not melted into the verb with which they are compounded; *fruns*

and *funs* are written for *frons* and *fons*, *Acherantis* for *Achea-  
fontis*; *quæquomque* for *quæcunque*, *hiis* for *his*, &c.

The editor professes also to have studiously collected all the passages in which Virgil has imitated Lucretius, and to have compared them with the original. The fruit of this diligence has been, he says, the cure of many corruptions in Virgil, which wore the appearance of soundness. As few authors have been more licentiously treated, on pretence of emendation, than Lucretius, Mr. Wakefield professes to have followed the authority of MSS. as far as the sense and Latinity would permit; and in his commentaries he has endeavoured so to adjust his observations, that they may not be despised by the learned, and that they may be understood by learners with profit; in a word, that he may cure both the satiety and the ignorance of his readers.

He inquires, near the close of his address, whether Lucretius left any monuments of his genius behind him, except this poem, as he seems to promise, lib. v. 147—158. Servius, he thinks, found the example of Ixion in his copy of Lucretius, among the fabulous punishments of the dead. Varro, in his treatise on the Latin language, quotes *the beginning of the one-and-twenty books of Lucretius*; but perhaps the name is here corrupted.

On account of the enormous expenses attending the publication of such a work, the first volume appeared by itself, as a precursor, to explore the public opinion. The edition, as Mr. Wakefield justly boasts, is decorated with all typographical luxury, to recommend it to those who are fond of splendid books. We hope that he will have his wishes, and not his fears, realised, when he says on this occasion, ‘Actum est pro-  
fecto de fortunis meis, et editionibus poetarum veterum per sudores meos in futurum procurandis, nisi sit hoc specimen lautis judicibus liberaliter exceptum;’ yet we cannot help observing, that the studious, who do not abound in money, will be precluded by this *typographical luxury* from the purchase of the book, and that the present times are not particularly favourable to such literary exertions:

Nam neque nos *emere* hoc, patriæ tempore iniquo,  
Possumus æquo animo.

Having taken notice of the most important parts of the preface, we shall give some specimens of the principal emendations and conjectures that distinguish this edition. We shall confine ourselves at present to the first book.

After the testimonies of authors, and the arguments of each book, we are introduced to the poem itself. Before we proceed, we shall warn our readers, to prevent mistakes, that the editions in our possession are the first of Gisajius (Antwerp,

1566), the fourth of Lambinus (Franckfort, 1583), and that of Havercamp.

Lib. i. ver. 2. Mr. Wakefield conjectures (not happily, we think) *sub te* for *subter*, and would make a pause after *signa*. In v. 5. he would read *limina* for *lumina*.

In v. 13. he follows the reading of the MSS. *percussæ* instead of *percussæ*.

15. 16. 17. ————— Ita, capta lepore,  
[Inlecebrisque tuis omnis natura animantium]

Te sequitur cupide, quo quamque inducere pergis.

He has inclosed the middle verse in brackets, as not being extant in any known MS. and as having been added by an ignoramus, who thought a nominative wanting, which is drawn from *quamque*. He would not perhaps have acted improperly, if he had totally expunged it, in imitation of Gitanus.

29. 30. To connect the members of the sentence, he would substitute *at* for *ut*, after *effice*.

35. *Rejicit, æterno devictus volnere amoris.*

Here he discusses the propriety of reading *reficit* and *devinctus*; but justly determines against both expressions.

45. *Quod super est, vacuas aureis mihi, Memmius, et te, Semotum—.*

So Mr. Wakefield reads from MSS.; but, because two have *quæso*, *vacuas mihi, Memmius, aureis*, and another *semotim*, he would wish to read the passage in that manner; and the idea is not unreasonable. Other editions have *Memmiada*.

57—62. Mr. Wakefield has inclosed in brackets the famous passage concerning the tranquillity of the Epicurean deities. It is said to be absent from some MSS., in others it changes its place. In one copy, a marginal note is added by an ancient hand; 'Hi sex versus ex secundo libro' (645—650) 'in hunc locum translati sunt, non poetæ operâ, sed scriptorum ignorantia.' It seems as if some religious reader had a mind to show the self-contradiction of the heathen poet, by bringing this passage so near to the invocation. However that may be, it provoked the animadversion of our facetious poet Prior, in his *Alma*:

'*Lucretius* keeps a mighty pother,  
With *Cupid* and his fancied mother;  
Calls her the queen of earth and air;  
Declares, that wind and waves obey her;  
And, while her honour he rehearses,  
Implores her to inspire his verses.

Yet, free from this poetic madness,  
Next page he says, in sober sadness,



That she, and all her fellow gods,  
 Sit idling in their blest abodes;  
 — Regardless of the world below,  
 Our health or hanging, weal or woe.

69. Quem neque fama deum — Though we are not advocates for the frequent admission of conjectural emendations, we are not displeased to see Bentley's *fama* in the text, which is a very slight alteration, but greatly improves the sense.

71. Inritat animi virtutem, efringere ut arta—So this verse is given by Mr. Wakefield, upon authority of MSS. we doubt not; but there seems to be some confusion in the note. He only produces one authority for *efringere*; but, if our memory does not deceive us, we have seen the same reading in Aldus's edition of Priscian. The common reading is, *Virtutem irritat animi, confringere*—

83, 84. ——— quod contra sapius olim  
 Religio.

The editor has followed Havercamp, and the reading of the MSS. *illa*. *That same religion*, we should say in English.

91. He has adopted *celerare*, instead of *celare*, from the Bologna edition. In Gifanius's margin, mention is made of another reading, *celebrare*, which nearly approaches to *celerare*.

115. Et simul intereat nobis cum, morte *dirempta*.

He properly animadverts on the conjecture of Creech, who recommended *perempta* at the end of this verse.

124. Sed quædam simulacra, modis pallentia miris.—This verse impressed itself so strongly upon Virgil's mind, that he borrowed or imitated it four times. Perhaps Lucretius himself borrowed it from Ennius.

137—140. Mr. Wakefield has corrected the punctuation, by placing a semicolon after *esse*, and joining 139 and 140. Gifanius had adopted nearly the same distinction. Ver. 139 is commonly inclosed in a parenthesis.

142. Gifanius and Mr. Wakefield give *ecferre* from MSS.

163. Squamigerum *genus*.

To avoid the repetition of *genus*, Mr. Wakefield is inclined, but has not ventured, to substitute *pecus*. Such a liberty would have been improper, as all the copies have the former word.

200, 201. Denique, quor homines tantos natura *parare*  
 Non potuit?

By a probable conjecture, *parire* is here recommended.

210. Manibus meliores *reddere* fetus. 'Pro *reddere* volebat Gifanius *reddier*; quam barbare!' Gifanius inserted it in the

text of his edition; Lambinus published *reddi*; both without the least necessity. But Gifanius was passionately fond of obtruding on Lucretius all possible poetical licences.

211. *Esse videlicet in terris primordia rerum.*—From the reading of the Bodleian MS. *in teneris*, the annotator proposes *in tenebris*.

231, 232. *Unde mare, ingenuei fontes, æternaque longe Flumina.*

He illustrates, from Hesiod, Ennius, and others, the reading *æterna*, which he found in one manuscript. The common reading is *externa*.

258. *Hinc fessæ pecudes.*—Bentley prefers *fetæ*, and our critic *fusæ*. *Fetæ*, which is the reading of some copies, seems not improbable.

279, 280. *Quæ mare, quæ terras, quæ denique nubila cœli, Verrunt.*

Mr. Wakefield is disgusted with *nubila*; and, indeed, it is apparently an anti-climax to make the wind agitate the sea and earth, and then, as the greatest effort of violence, exert itself upon the *clouds*, which a slight breeze can put in motion. He therefore advises, on plausible grounds, the substitution of *culmina*.

307. He retains the old reading, *discessæ*, and adds, ‘*Pii editio habet candenti; omnino contra probabilitatem, et Nonii insuper suffragium.*’ When he made this remark, he should have allowed for the variations of editions. As far as we can judge, his Nonius is Gothofred’s edition; but *candenti* is cited from Nonius by Gifanius in his margin, and so Mercer published the passage.

335. *Quapropter locus est intactus inane, vacansque.*—In concert with Bentley, the editor pronounces this verse spurious. ‘*Nihil erat magis expectandum, quam hæc axiomata sciolos esse illituros marginibus librorum, et ea tandem decursu temporis in textum migratura.*’

406. *Naribus inveniunt intestas frunde, quietes.*—He has put *injetlis* into the text, perhaps without sufficient external authority.

470, 471. *Namque aliud terris, aliud regionibus ipsis, Eventum dici poterit.*

Some of the editors have altered *terris*, the reading of the MSS. to *rebus*: but he retains *terris*, and inserts *legionibus*.

561. *Nunquam reliquo reparari tempore possit.* So it is in Havercamp’s edition; *nunquam relliquo* in that of Gifanius;

*nunquam id relinquo* in that of Lambinus. Mr. Wakefield also inserts *id*, adding, "P. *Id relinquo nunquam*; Vind. *Id nunquam relinquo*. Nihil, aut parum, interest, quid ex his velis eligere." But it is of some consequence which reading we adopt, if Bentley says truly in his note upon Phædrus, i. 31, 13. that *reliquus* is always a quadrisyllable in the Latin poets, from Plautus to Phædrus inclusive. He then quotes the present passage of Lucretius, another from IV. 973. and reads in III. 649. without the preposition *cum*, *Corpore relinquo pugnam cædesque petisfit*. We have only to add, that the true writing of the word seems to be *relicuo*, which is favoured by MSS. in several places.

616—628. Lucretius endeavours to prove that there must be atoms, or first bodies, because otherwise we must admit the infinite divisibility of matter.

‘ ————— parvissima quæ sunt,  
Ex infinitis constabunt partibus æque.  
Quod, quoniam ratio reclamationem vera, negatque  
Credere posse animum, victus fateare necesse est,’ &c.

We quote this passage for the sake of remarking an odd co-incidence in an observation of Mr. Hume, who says, that no priestly dogmas ever shocked common sense so much, as the infinite divisibility of matter, with its consequences.

645. ————— et lepido quæ sunt *fucata sonore*.

Mr. Wakefield is inclined to think, that *dulcata* would be preferable to *fucata*, as the latter word, considered with regard to *sonore*, appears to him to involve a confusion of metaphor. A manuscript in the British museum has *colore* for *sonore*; but we do not approve this reading, as it will not suit *aureis*; and, though *dulcata* may justly be deemed more congruous with *sonore* than *fucata*, we cannot fully concur in the proposed alteration, as *fucata* will better express the affectation to which the poet alludes.

746. ————— admiscent in eorum corpus inane.

Creech is again subjected to the lash of our commentator, as he unfortunately proposed *corpore* in this verse for *corpus*.

762. Mr. Wakefield has rightly restored the reading of the MSS. *tempestate coactâ*, instead of the conjecture of Lambinus, *coactâ*.

777. Cum terrâ simul, et quodam cum rore, manere.

He has thus given this disputed line on the authority of most of the MSS. He made some attempts for the emendation of it; but at length desisted, from despair of success; modestly saying, 'Peritioribus ingeniis, atque felicioribus conjecturarum, versum discutiendum tradimus, ad alia laxiora libentissime ex his angustiis procedentes.'

839. 840. Lucretius explains and refutes the *homœomeria* of Anaxagoras;

Ex aurique putat micis consistere posse  
Aurum.

Mr. Wakefield has received into his edition Bentley's conjecture, *Ex auræque—Aurum*. It must, however, be confessed, that the passages quoted from Simplicius and Diogenes Laërtius seem to defend the vulgar reading.

856. Ex oculis nostris, aliquâ vi *viſta*, perire.

From *cuncta*, which he found in various copies for *viſta*, he has formed *funſta*, which he has well supported by examples.

873. Ex alienigenis consistant ligna, necesse est.

Immediately after this verse, two others are found in many MSS. One, however, is properly rejected by the present editor, as '*haud dubie adulterinus*;' and the other is thus given:

'Ex alienigenis, quæ lignis exoriuntur.'

875. Linquitur heic *quædam latitandi copia tenuis*.

This order of the words Mr. Wakefield has restored from some of the best MSS. instead of the vulgar reading, *tenuis latitandi copia quædam*. In the note, *copia* seems to have been inadvertently put for *quædam*.

976. quod prohibeat, *efficiatque*.—This is the reading of the greater part of the MSS. instead of *officiat*. Mr. Wakefield has also restored the reading of MSS. in v. 978—*non est a fine profectum*. The common editions had admitted, *non est ea finis profecto*; but the other reading is far preferable.

1024. *vexantur* percita plagis.—He has given *nexantur* from the Verona edition; and refers to lib. ii. v. 98.

1040. He reads with the generality of the MSS. *aliquâ ratione averſa*, for *reſtâ regione*, referring to lib. v. v. 414.

1060. Most of the MSS. have *animalia supra*; but he follows Havercamp, who reads *suppa*.

1091. This verse is marked as suspicious, though in a note it is said, '*non omnino videtur vobis postulandus*.'

1100. *terræ cœlique ruinas*.—Mr. Wakefield has exhibited the reading of the best copies, *rerum*.

The second and following books will be accurately examined at a future opportunity.

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*A Tour in Switzerland; or, a View of the present State of the Governments and Manners of those Cantons: with comparative Sketches of the present State of Paris. By Helen Maria Williams. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.*

WHATEVER comes from the pen of Miss Williams is valuable; and she has had the good fortune to be employed

upon subjects the most interesting to her countrymen. During the tumults of the French revolution, our most characteristic accounts came from the ingenious female who had been the friend of the Gironde party, and who shared the prison of Sillery and La Source; and now, when the fate of Switzerland is the theme of general discourse and common commiseration, this work appears to inform us rightly what those liberties are of which we are so disposed to lament the invasion.

Miss Williams entered Switzerland with every prepossession in its favour. She had escaped from the prisons of Paris and the tyranny of Robespierre; and powerfully did the contrast affect her.

‘At length,’ (as she expresses her thoughts) ‘am I going to contemplate that interesting country, of which I have never heard without emotion! — I am going to gaze upon images of nature; images of which the idea has so often swelled my imagination, but which my eyes have never yet beheld. — I am going to repose my wearied spirit on those sublime objects — to sooth my desponding heart with the hope that the moral disorder I have witnessed shall be rectified, while I gaze on nature in all her admirable perfections; and how delightful a transition shall I find in the picture of social happiness which Switzerland presents! I shall no longer see liberty profaned and violated; here she smiles upon the hills, and decorates the vallies, and finds, in the uncorrupted simplicity of this people, a firmer barrier than in the cragginess of their rocks, or the snows of their glaciers!’ Vol. i. p. 4.

Imagination had not equaled the sublime scenery of the country; but a short residence at Basil corrected her ideas of the people. For her disappointment she accounts liberally. She says:

‘It was perhaps my own fault, or rather the fault of former travellers. Warmed with enthusiasm for the natural beauties of the country, fancy, which loves the dreams of happiness and perfection, has delighted to associate with those enchanting scenes the charm of congenial society; and to connect with the sublime landscape the higher qualities of mind. Imagination places stock-jobbers and usurers with as much reluctance amidst the grandeur of Swiss scenery, as it would fill with a misshapen gothic image the niche of a Grecian temple. It must be indeed admitted, that the love of gold is a taste pretty generally diffused throughout Europe; that neither the inhabitants of Paris nor of London can be taxed with any remarkable indifference for riches; nor have wealthy persons in either of those capitals any reason to complain of the neglect of their fellow citizens. But although the people of most countries are, with respect to the researches of gain, burghers of Basil, during the hours of the morning, the evening at least is de-

voted to amusement, to social pleasure, to friendship, to some object that cheers, or soothes the heart, and the projects of interest are laid aside till the morrow. At Basil alone, the toils of trade find no relaxation; they begin with the day, but do not finish at its close; since even the hours of recreation are made subservient to the views of interest; and the only species of amusement in which the burghers of that city indulge themselves, is one at which they can arrange their commercial dealings, strike bargains, and vigorously pursue that main chance which appears to be, their "being's end, and aim." Vol. i. p. 6.

Such are the habits of the citizens of Basil; and their political liberties exist only in name. The burghers—a fifth part only of the population—'alone enjoy, or fancy they enjoy, the rights of equality.' The remainder are in a state of complete degradation; and all the peasantry of the canton, with an exception only of the little town of Leislal, are literally *serfs*, and annexed to the soil.

'The population of the canton of Basil being very far beyond the proportion of its extent of territory, great numbers are employed in manufactures, particularly that of cottons and ribbons, which are brought to great perfection. Over the manufacturers of these articles, the governors find it advantageous to manifest some portion of their right of sovereignty; for in vain the father of a family may cultivate his field of flax, and prepare it for use; in vain his wife may spin, his infants turn the wheel which winds the thread, and he himself weave the woof; the web when woven is not at his disposition—he has no right over the produce of his labour, no power to dispose of what he has acquired by the sweat of his brow and the toil of his hands; he must carry his little stock to the capital of his canton, and there, and only there, is permitted to sell it; while the burgher of the town, who is the purchaser, has previously arranged the price at which it shall be sold. A more vexatious law than this is, I believe, scarcely to be found in the whole code of despotism.' Vol. i. p. 103.

The other cantons of Switzerland are not favoured with a better system. In all, we meet with the despotism of an oligarchy. In Berne 'all places of honour, authority or profit belong exclusively to seventy-six families,' of which seventeen share the majority of votes; and with what contempt of common justice they administer the government, is well exemplified in the history of La Harpe. Yet these are the countries which have been represented as the happiest and best governed on earth.

'It is now asserted,' (says Miss Williams) 'that the freedom of Swiss governments has been the subject of eulogium only because compared with the other republics of Europe; the name bestowed on the small number of oligarchies, the most considerable of which have lately disappeared; the inhabitants of Switzerland enjoyed re-



lative advantages ; as the glow-worm becomes a luminary when all around is darkness.' Vol. ii. p. 205.

In her comparative view of the present state of Paris, our authoress has well selected the characteristic features of the time ; the costume *à la Grecque*, and *à la sauvage* ; the horrible *bal à la victime*, a strange and detestable commemoration, only perhaps to be accounted for as a rallying point for royalism ; the religious professions of the aristocrats, and the rise and increasing progress of the theophilanthropists, whose simple rites deserve the commendation which miss Williams has bestowed upon them. The same frivolity still characterises the Parisians. It was, for some time, the fashion among the ladies to regret the subversion of the old *régime*, the regret being attributed to the remembrance of the rank which they held ; but now, when such a retrospect is considered as the evidence of a certain age, the ladies of Paris are, of course, republicans. The enterprising genius of the men is directed towards commercial purposes ; and the ardour with which they pursue their plans will probably be attended with great and important improvements.

' All grasp at something strange, and something great ; a new world seems opening to their view, and which all model after their own fashion. Every man has seized upon some profound discovery, some happy speculation, which will infallibly pour forth an ever-flowing stream of inexhaustible wealth. When one chimera fails, another swiftly springs up ; all is " bubble, bubble, toil and trouble ;" spurred by hope, or goaded by want, every man mounts the hobby-horse of his imagination, and whips it up to some marvellous achievement.

' One citizen frames stoves of paper more durable than brass or steel ; another erects mills that scorn the aid of fire, wind, or water ; another extracts new chemical substances, which, when applied to commerce, are to produce riches beyond the visions of the alchemists. All announce that they have set their inventive talents upon the anvil, merely for the good of their country ; and as the ideas which the revolution has awakened, have given every individual in France some floating notions of his own importance, every man, however ignorant or mistaken, boldly brings forward his infallible plan, insists upon his right of being heard by his fellow-citizens, and calls upon every capitalist to hasten to him with his funds, and calculate, if he can, the enormous mass of interest with which the wings of every moment will be loaded.' Vol. i. p. 19.

From the view of oppression and folly, the reader is agreeably relieved in these volumes by following the authoress through the attractive scenes of Switzerland ; scenes which must awaken strong emotions in the coldest mind, and of which miss Williams was capable of understanding and de-

scribing the beauties. At Zurich she visited Lavater; and was highly pleased with the devotional spirit, the meek and holy enthusiasm, of the venerable pastor; the more particularly as she had been long accustomed to the cold cavils of scepticism. We quote the passage in justice to the feelings by which it was dictated.

‘ One of my fellow-travellers, who was anxious to wrest from the venerable pastor his confession of faith, brought in review before him the various opinions of the fathers, orthodox and heretic; from Justin Martyr and Origen, down to the bishop of St. David’s and Dr. Priestley. But Lavater did not appear to have made polemics his study; he seemed to think right and wrong, in historical fact, of far less importance than right and wrong in religious sentiment; and above all, in human action. There was more of feeling than of logic in his conclusions; and he appeared to have taken less pains to examine religion, than to apply its precepts to the regulation of those frailties and passions of the human heart, the traces of which, hidden from others, he had marked with such admirable accuracy in the character and expression of outward forms. For myself, I own the solemn, meek, affectionate expression of Lavater’s pious sentiments, were peculiarly soothing to my feelings, after having been so long stunned with the cavils of French philosophers, or rather the impertinent comments of their disciples, who are so proud of their scepticism, that they are for ever obtruding it in conversation. The number of those disciples is augmented since the revolution, which has spread far and wide the writings of Rousseau and Voltaire; and every Frenchman, after having read those authors, though he may neither have taste enough to admire the charms of their genius, or virtue to feel the philanthropy of their sentiments, has, at least, acquired sufficient knowledge to assume the appellation of philosopher, and prove his claim to that title by enlisting himself under the banner of infidelity, without knowing the use of his arms.’ Vol. i. p. 71.

We doubt not that these volumes will attract considerable attention; for we know of few works that combine so much amusement with such a fund of information.

*The Life of Sir Charles Linnaeus, Knight of the Swedish Order of the Polar Star, &c. &c. to which is [are] added, a copious List of his Works, and a Biographical Sketch of the Life of his Son: by D. H. Stoever, PH. D. Translated from the German by Joseph Trapp, A. M. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. White.*

IT is not now the time to be the panegyrist of Linnaeus. In various parts of our journal, we have been the guardians of his

‘fair fame,’ by placing his merits on their proper foundation, by avoiding indiscriminate adulation, and admitting acknowledged errors. The chief incidents of his life have already occurred to our notice ; and we shall therefore, from the very copious biography now before us, only glean a few circumstances, which former authors may have omitted, slightly noticed, or misrepresented. We cannot, however, offer a single remark on the subject of the work, without previously expressing the highest disapprobation of Dr. Trapp’s version, and our regret, that the members of the Linnæan society have not guarded against the injury done to the character of the naturalist from whom they are denominated, by this very erroneous translation. The work is, in itself, highly valuable ; but it is difficult for the general and less informed reader to seize, in many instances, the meaning of the author in his uncouth and even disgusting garb.

The parts of the work which are more particularly new and interesting, are those which relate to the private life of Linnæus. The early difficulties which he felt from a contracted income, and his exertions to overcome them, are sufficiently known. We know, that he visited Holland and England, and that he was received here with great reserve, often indeed with almost a contemptuous coolness. Some passages respecting the conduct of our English naturalists we shall select : they are translated from his own diary.

‘ One of the principal motives of the journey of Linnæus to England, was the botanical garden at Chelsea. Clifford wished to procure some foreign plants from it. The great botanist Philip Miller, who died on the 18th of December, 1771, in the 80th year of his age, was then keeper of that garden. Linnæus waited on him, Miller conducted him into the garden, showed him the plants, and gave them their ancient and inaccurate names. Linnæus was silent, his silence was ascribed to ignorance, and Miller jocosely said to one of his acquaintance : “ Sure, the botanist of burgomaster Clifford is a great man,— he knows nothing at all of plants.” — Linnæus heard of this, and saw Miller again, firmly resolved to teach him to know better. Miller made use a second time of the ancient names. “ Why do you apply these, pray ?” asked Linnæus, “ we have better and conciser appellations.” — Miller still retained the ancient terms, was somewhat offended at the lesson he had received, but began, however, to conceive more esteem for the knowledge of Linnæus. The latter visited him a third time, and met with a more pleasant and polite reception, obtained the plants which he requested for Clifford’s garden, kept up ever after a friendly acquaintance and correspondence with Miller, and the garden of Chelsea was finally arranged according to the Linnæan system.’ p. 89.

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‘ Linnæus waited on Dillenius, and found him in company with another gentleman; who, as he afterwards learned, was no other than William Sherard. He addressed Dillenius in Latin, and apologized for his ignorance of the English language. After some short conversation, Dillenius said to Sherard in English: — “ See, this is the young man who confounds all botany.” — Linnæus understood this, as the word *confound*, so analogous to the Latin of *confundere*, was made use of; he feigned, however, not to understand him. They then went to the garden. Linnæus took great notice of a plant which he had not yet seen (*Anthirrhinum Minus*). He asked Dillenius what plant it was? “ That is more than you can tell me:” answered the latter. — “ Yes I can tell, if I may be permitted to take off a flower and examine it.” — “ Take one and welcome,” said Dillenius. Linnæus took one and gave it the right name. Dillenius prepossessed by the pride of his own knowledge, continued to treat our luminary with great coolness and reserve.

‘ The latter despaired of ever gaining his friendship, and obtaining presents of plants for Clifford’s garden. His travelling money was also very nearly expended. He went therefore on the third day to Dillenius, and intreated him to let his servant hire a coach for him to return to London, as he could not speak English. The servant was dispatched. “ Before I go,” said Linnæus, “ I have one favor more to request: pray tell me candidly, why did you tell the man who was with you the day before yesterday, that I was the person who confounded all botany.” Astonished and thunder-struck! Dillenius endeavoured to deny what he had said, and to turn the conversation on some other subject, but Linnæus insisted on an explanation.

“ Well,” said Dillenius, “ come along with me.” He went to his library and showed Linnæus his work: entitled *Genera Plantarum*, of which Gronov, without his knowledge, had sent him one half of the printed sheets. Every page was marked in different places with the letters N. B. — “ What do these marks signify?” asked Linnæus. — “ They signify all the false genera of plants in your book.” — “ They are not false,” replied Linnæus, “ or if they are, I beg you would teach me better; I will thankfully receive your correction.” — “ Very well, let us try.” — They went in the garden. Dillenius took up a plant called *blitum*, in his and others opinion it had three stamina. Linnæus examined the flower, and found, according to his assertion, that it only had one. — “ Psha! such a thing may happen in one flower,” exclaimed Dillenius, — but it was so with all. — Several plants were now examined, and the genera given by Linnæus proved to be accurate. This effected an entire change in the conduct of Dillenius. “ You must not be gone so soon,” said he: “ I wish you would assist me in arranging and classing Sherard’s collections.” Linnæus saw those collections, remained some time longer at Oxford, and re-

ceived of Dillenius all the plants he wished to have for Clifford's garden.' P. 91.

Sir Hans Sloane received our naturalist with more than the coolness of Dillenius; and indeed the latter seems never to have been cordially reconciled to this daring innovator. Veterans almost always look with jealousy on those who follow, and are likely to eclipse them; nor did Linnæus, in his early works, conciliate esteem by an ingenuous modesty. He seemed sometimes to catch, with a bold arrogance, the laurel which time was bending within his reach, and which the successors of the Sloanes and Hallers would willingly have accorded to him. Haller himself, in the full career of his credit, seemed to feel some envy at the appearance of this new meteor, whose coruscations eclipsed his more steady light; and their correspondence was rarely animated by cordial friendship, being often interrupted by disagreements, not always creditable to the senator of Berne. Yet Haller was at times warm in his commendation; and, with a zeal for the promotion of science, rather perhaps than a friendly or personal view, wished for Linnæus as his successor in the botanical chair at Göttingen. All the disputes concerning the Linnæan system are related with great propriety; and a short abstract is given of a curious anonymous tract published by our naturalist; the only professed vindication of himself, — *Orbis eruditi Judicium de C. Linnæi Scriptis*.

The rise of the prosperity of Linnæus at Stockholm, and his establishment at Upsal, are minutely related; and, in many parts of this volume, we find information which would add to or correct the biographical attempts of other authors. We shall select what relates to his first success as a medical practitioner, since, like our former extract, it is taken from his own memoranda.

'The cure of a long, and now, alas! a fashionable distemper of a friend, which was effected in a fortnight, paved Linnæus the way to fortune in his practice. This recovered patient recommended Linnæus as an able physician to his numerous acquaintance. Among these were several of the same description who complained of weakness in the breast, and abstained on this account from drinking wine. They applied to Linnæus, he restored them, and they could afterwards enjoy their glass with the best. This circumstance made a great impression on the jovial circles. His reputation increased, and no physician was thought more able than Linnæus in curing all pectoral complaints. He was called to the lady of an aulic counsellor, troubled with a cough. Linnæus prescribed a remedy which she could carry by her for constant use. This lady was one day at court on a card party with queen Ulrica

**Blennora.** While playing, 'she put something into her mouth. "What is this?" asked the queen.—"A remedy against the cough, may it please your majesty; I always find myself much relieved after using it."—The queen had a cough at that very time. Linnaeus was called, he prescribed the same remedy, and the queen's ailment disappeared.—Thus did the cough first introduce him to court, and there advance his prosperity.

'The patron to whom Linnaeus stood indebted for his recent good fortune, was that celebrated statesman count Charles Gustavus Tessin, who educated the late king of Sweden, and terminated his meritorious career on the seventh of January 1776. He was well versed in the sciences and a great lover of natural history. To his attention and favour Sweden owes the display of the greatest genius which it ever produced. Linnaeus always found in him the kindest and most zealous protector, through whose interest he obtained all further dignities and honours. To transmit the remembrance of those benefits to posterity, he enumerated them in a public manner in the last edition of his System of Nature, which he dedicated to this noble friend. "He received me," says Linnaeus, "on my return, when I was a stranger in my own country, he obtained for me a salary from the states, the appointment of physician to the admiralty, the professor of botany at Upsal, the title of dean or president of the college of physicians, the favour of two kings, and recommended me by a medal to posterity."

'The manner in which count Tessin first avowed himself the protector of Linnaeus deserves particular mention. Having made himself known at court by the cure of the cough, the count, who was already acquainted with his distinguished rank in science, sent for him, and after long conversation asked him, if he did not wish for some office, or if he would like to petition for any place, as the diet was then assembled. "The charge of physician to the admiralty is now vacant," replied Linnaeus, "but it is destined, as I hear, for another." "But that other shall not have it," replied the count; and a few weeks after, on the 14th or 15th of May, Linnaeus received the diploma of physician to the navy and botanist to the king.' P. 145.

The splendor of his meridian fame is sufficiently known. At a distance, this splendor is unimpaired; when we approach, spots and deformities are visible; and we see with regret the evening of a brilliant life sometimes clouded by domestic uneasiness. We shall present Linnaeus, in our future extracts, in his private life, literally in his night-gown and slippers. The account is taken from Fabricius, one of his most favoured pupils.

'We were three, Kuhn, Zoega, and I, all foreigners. In winter we lived directly facing his house, and he came to us almost every day, in his short red *robe de chambre*, with a green fur-cap on



his head and a pipe in his hand. He came for half an hour but stopped a whole one, and many times two. His conversation on these occasions was extremely sprightly and pleasant. It either consisted in anecdotes relative to the learned in his profession, with whom he got acquainted in foreign countries, or in clearing up our doubts, or giving us other kinds of instruction. He used to laugh then most heartily, and displayed a serenity and an openness of countenance, which proved how much his soul was susceptible of amity and good fellowship.

‘ Our life was much happier when we resided in the country. Our habitation was about half a quarter of a league distant from his house at Hammarby — in a farm where we kept our own furniture and other requisites for housekeeping. He rose very early in summer, and mostly about four o’clock. At six he came to us because his house was then building, breakfasted with us, and gave lectures upon the natural orders of plants (*ordines naturales plantarum*), as long as he pleased, and generally till about ten o’clock. We then wandered about till twelve upon the adjacent rocks, the productions of which afforded us plenty of entertainment. In the afternoon we repaired to his garden, and in the evening we mostly played at the Swedish game of trisfett, in company with his spouse.

‘ On Sundays the whole family usually came to spend the day with us. We sent for a peasant who played on an instrument resembling a violin, at the sound of which we danced in the barn of our farm-house. Our balls were certainly not very splendid, the company but small, the music superlatively rustic, and no change in the dances, which were constantly either minuets or Polish; but regardless of these wants we passed our time very merrily. While we were dancing, the old man, who smoked his pipe with Zoega, who was deformed by nature, and emaciated, became a spectator of our amusement, and sometimes, though very rarely, danced a Polish dance, in which he excelled every one of us young men. He was extremely delighted whenever he saw us in high glee, nay, if we even became very noisy; had he not always found us so, he would have manifested his apprehensions lest we should not be sufficiently entertained. — Those days, those hours shall never be erased from my memory, and every remembrance of them is grateful to my heart!’ P. 273.

‘ When I got acquainted with sir Charles Linnæus, who was then in his fifty-sixth year, increasing age had already furrowed his front with wrinkles. His countenance was open, almost constantly serene, and bore great resemblance to his portrait in the *species plantarum*. His eyes, — of all the eyes I ever saw, — were the most beautiful. They certainly were but little, but darted a resplendent splendor and a penetration of aspect which I never observed before in any other man. It sometimes appeared to me, as if

his looks would penetrate through the very innermost recesses of the heart.

‘ His mind was remarkably noble and elevated, though I well know that some persons accused him of several faults; the acuteness and energy of his mental faculties, even shone through his eyes. But his greatest excellence consisted in the systematical order, by which his thoughts succeeded each other. Whatever he said or did was faithful to order, to truth, and to regularity. In his youth his memory was uncommonly vigorous, but it began to sink early into decay. Even when I was with him, he could not sometimes remember the names of his dearest friends and relatives. I still recollect to have seen him once very much embarrassed, when, after writing a letter to Moræus, his father-in-law at Fahlun, he almost found it impossible to recollect his name.

‘ His passions were strong and violent. His heart was open to every impression of joy; and he loved jocularly, conviviality and good living. He was an excellent companion, pleasant in conversation, full of strong hits of fancy and seasonable and entertaining stories; but at the same time, suddenly roused to anger and boisterous; the sudden effervescence of this fiery passion subsided however, almost at the very moment of its birth, and he immediately became all plain good-nature again. His friendship was sure and invariable. Science was generally its basis; and every one who knew him must own what concern he always manifested for his pupils, and with how much zeal they returned his friendship, and frequently became his defenders. He was so fortunate as to find among his favourites none that were ungrateful; even Rolander deserved more to be pitied than blamed.’ P. 276.

‘ He was not quite happy and comfortable in his own family. His wife was tall, robust, domineering, selfish, and destitute of every advantage of good education. She frequently robbed us of the joys which gilded our social moments. Unable to hold any conversation in decent company, she consequently was never much fond of it herself.

‘ Under those disadvantages, the education of the children of Linnaeus could not but be of an inferior description. The young ladies, his daughters, are all good-tempered, but rough children of nature, and deprived of those external accomplishments which they might have derived from a better education. The younger Linnaeus, who succeeded his father in his professorship at Upsal, is certainly not endowed with the same vivacity; but the great knowledge which he acquired by a constant practice of botany, and by the many and excellent observations of his parent which he found in his manuscripts, must have rendered him a very useful man there. The eldest daughter, who married captain Von Bergencranz, returned afterwards to her parents, and lived constantly in their house.’ P. 278.

The life of the younger Linnæus follows; the Supplement was, it seems, the work of the father, and some of the later discoveries were added by the son. Dr. Stoeber endeavours to raise the character of the son by every favourable representation; but he wanted the ardour, the active exertions—in a word, the genius—of the father. A complete list is given of the works of Linnæus; and various extracts from his diary, with other incidental notices, conclude this very interesting, if not very pleasing, volume.

We are glad, from the authority of the notes, to find that the younger Haller and Sigesbeck lived to express their sorrow for having written against him; and to contradict what is said in the text, that Linnæus, with a mean spirit of revenge, affixed the names of his enemies to plants of a disgusting appearance and noxious properties.

*Travels in the Two Sicilies, and some Parts of the Apennines. Translated from the original Italian of the Abbé Lazzaro Spallanzani, Professor-Royal of Natural History in the University of Pavia, &c.*

(Continued from Vol. XXII. Page 262.)

THE Lipari Islands engage a large share of the abbé's attention: indeed, they have never been closely examined, except by M. Dolomieu; and even that investigator, though diligent and attentive, has left an ample field for future observations and inquiries. The smoke of the volcano of Stromboli seems not to be the faithful prophet of the weather which is soon to follow, as some authors have supposed. The account of the appearances of an eruption we shall transcribe.

‘ The south-east wind blew strong. The sky, which was clear, the moon not shining, exhibited the appearance of a beautiful aurora borealis, over that part of the mountain where the volcano is situated, and which, from time to time, became more red and brilliant, when the ignited stones were thrown to a greater height from the top of the mountain. The fiery showers were then more copious, and the explosions which followed them louder, the strongest resembling those of a large mine which does not succeed properly, from some cleft or vent. Every explosion, however, slightly shook the house in which I was, and the degree of the shock was proportionate to the loudness of the sound. I do not believe that these shocks were of the nature of the earthquake; they were certainly to be ascribed to the sudden action of the fiery ejections on the air, which struck the small house in which I was, in the same manner as the discharge of a cannon will shake the windows of the neighbouring houses, and sometimes the houses

themselves. A proof of this is, that the fiery showers always were seen a few seconds before the shock was felt, whereas the house was so near the volcano, that, had it been a real earthquake, no interval of time would have been perceptible.

' Before the morning rose, the fiery light over the volcano increased so much, at three different times; that it illuminated the whole island, and a part of the sea. This light was each time but of short duration, and the showers of ignited stones were, while it lasted, more copious than before.

' On the morning of the 2d of the same month, the south-east wind blew stronger than ever, and the sea was greatly agitated. The smoke of Stromboli formed a kind of cap round the top of the mountain, which descended much lower than on the preceding day. The phenomena were the same; but the convulsions of the volcano were more violent. The explosions were very frequent, but always with a hollow sound; and the ejected ashes reached the scattered dwellings of the people of the island. In the morning, the ground appeared very plentifully sprinkled with these ashes, as they are called by the natives; but, on examination, I found that they were not properly ashes, but very finely triturated scorix, consisting of very small grains of no determinate form, dry, and rough to the touch, and which crumble into powder under the finger. They are not very far from a vitreous nature, in colour between a grey and a red, semi-transparent, and so light, that some will float on the water. Their levity proceeds from the great quantity of vesicles, or pores, which they contain, and which causes them, when viewed with the lens, to bear some resemblance to the sea production of unknown origin called *savago* (*savaggine*).’ Vol. ii. p. 19.

The volcano is now half-way down the mountain; but the author thinks, with much plausibility, that the crater was once on the top. Sir William Hamilton represents the crater as being at this time on the top; a mistake which, in the abbé's opinion, arose from his having surveyed this island, at a distance, from the sea. The stones thrown out have had no effect in making the surrounding sea shallower, not because they are again drawn in by the mountain, to furnish fresh showers, as the islanders absurdly imagine, but because they consist of scoriaceous lava, and are soon triturated by the action of the waves. The explosions have not the intermissions usually supposed by those who at a distance could not hear the smaller bursts; and the matter, in moderate eruptions, is ejected to the height of about half a mile. Our adventurous philosopher advanced to the crater of Stromboli; and, as such attempts will not probably be often made, we shall select his description.

‘ The crater, to a certain height, is filled with a liquid red-hot matter, resembling melted brass, and which is the fluid lava. This lava appeared to be agitated by two distinct motions; the one intestine, whirling, and tumultuous; and the other, that by which it is impelled upwards. This motion in particular merited to be examined with attention. The liquid matter is raised, sometimes with more, and sometimes with less rapidity, within the crater, and when it has reached the distance of twenty-five or thirty feet; from the upper edge, a sound is heard not unlike a very short clap of thunder; while, at the same moment, a portion of the lava, separated into a thousand pieces, is thrown up, with indescribable swiftness, accompanied with a copious eruption of smoke, ashes, and sand. A few moments before the report, the superficies of the lava is inflated, and covered with large bubbles; some of which are several feet in diameter, which bubbles presently burst, and, at the same instant, the detonation and fiery shower take place. After the explosion, the lava within the crater sinks, but soon again rises as before, and new tumours appear, which again burst, and produce new explosions. When the lava sinks, it produces little or no sound; but when it rises, and especially when it begins to be inflated with bubbles, it is accompanied with a sound, similar, in proportion to the difference of magnitude, to that of a liquor boiling vehemently in a caldron.

‘ I remained in this cavity, which so conveniently sheltered me from danger, an hour and a quarter; during which time, besides the observations I have already stated, I was enabled to make the following:

‘ Every ejection, however small, was not only accompanied by an explosion, but was proportionate to it in its intensity. Hence, as the stones which are only thrown to the height of ten or twenty yards above the crater, are not visible to the eye at a distance, so, neither, is the detonation by which such ejections are accompanied, sensible to the ear.

‘ In the smaller and moderate ejections, the stones fell back into the crater, and, at their collision with the fluid lava, produced, as I have already said, a sound similar to that of water struck by a number of staves; but, in the greater ejections, a considerable quantity of them always fell without the mouth; though that lying low, and surrounded with heights, the greater part of them rolled again into it. Here, however, we must except that side of the crater which lies immediately over the precipice before described, since there, every stone which fell without the crater, bounded down the declivity, and descended to the sea. When I viewed this precipice from the water, it appeared to me to terminate in a point; but here I distinctly perceived, that, where it reached the volcano, it was more than sixty feet in breadth.

‘ The redness of the larger ignited stones (which were only pieces of scoriaceous lava) was visible in the air, notwithstanding

the light of the sun. Many of them elashed against each other and were broken, which happened only when they were at a certain height; for, when they were nearer to the volcano, they frequently adhered, on touching each other, in consequence of the fluidity they retained. The lava of the crater, when it rose or fell, emitted but little smoke; but a great quantity when it exploded. The smoke issued from its fissures, but almost immediately disappeared after the explosion. It might be compared to the smoke produced by the firing of gunpowder, and which appears and disappears with the flash. This smoke appeared to me extraneous to the lava; at least, the fragments of the latter neither smoke as they fly in the air, nor after they have reached the ground.

‘In consequence of the alternate rising and sinking of the lava, according as it is inflated or makes its discharge, the depth of the crater cannot be considered as constant. When the lava is at its height, it may be about five-and-twenty or thirty feet deep; and, when it has subsided, about forty or fifty: the greatest rising of the lava may, therefore, be estimated at about twenty feet.’ Vol. ii. p. 58.

The basis of the lava of Stromboli is horn-stone. No pumice has been observed; for the scorizæ, though filamentous, have not the peculiar structure and other characteristics of pumice-stone. They approach to the nature of glass; and even the oldest scorizæ seem to have undergone nearly the same degree of heat as the latest. Schoerls and felt-spars occur, as in the other lavas of these regions. The abbé describes the other productions of Stromboli, and, among the rest, the specular iron, which he first discovered in this island. Stromboli has burned beyond the earliest æras of historic record; and its fires seem to be chiefly supported by pyrites.

Some rocks, which we scarcely need stop to name, lie on the left in sailing from Lipari to Sicily. They are, perhaps, the remains of the ancient Euonymos, the seventh of the Æolian Isles in the time of Strabo. They are evidently volcanic; and, at the side of one of these, a hot exhalation is still observable, and sulphureous hydrogenated gas was collected in the same spot; so that, in all probability, a latent fire still exists there. The granite of these coasts, from which the scorizæ seem to have been formed, was infusible in a fire of  $87^{\circ}\frac{1}{4}$  of Wedgwood's pyrometer (the heat of a common forge), and imperfectly fusible at much higher degrees. Indeed, granite seems wholly infusible, unless its basis be felt-spar, and its proportion of flint very small. In a wind-furnace of  $90^{\circ}$  of Wedgwood, granite melted very imperfectly. We ought not, however, to conclude with Spallanzani, that, in these volcanos, the heat has been so intense, but that the lavas were really not formed of granite.

Vulcano and Vulcanello were once distinct islands, but are now united by an isthmus of lava. The crater of Vulcano offered nothing new, but the noise of seemingly contending rivers below, and the frequent eruptions of hydrogenous blasts. The grotto is an excavation in the sides of the crater, 110 feet in height, and 250 in breadth, ending at the bottom in a pit of the circumference of 30 feet. Its suffocating white fumes are immense in quantity, and form, when collected by the sides, stalactites of sulphur. Even some vitreous lavas have been decomposed by these sulphureous fumes, which are the general agents for decomposing lavas. The abbé admits, with M. Sage, that the fumes of muriatic acid may have the same effect; but these do not occur in the burning mountains, hitherto examined. Prismatic or basaltiform lavas our author observed on the sides of the crater of Vulcano, which must have been of igneous origin: they owe, in his opinion, their form to retraction, in consequence of sudden cooling. He discovered a smaller crater about half-way up the mountain, which will soon be filled. He has given a copious history of these mountains, from the accounts of ancient and modern observers.

The island of Lipari furnishes many curious remarks. The castle and the town are situated on a vast mass of volcanic glass, divided into laminæ by some extraneous substances, which seem to have risen to the top of the melted fluid, and prevented the subsequent current from uniting with it. This glass, though apparently without bubbles, swells, in an extraordinary degree, in the fire. At a small distance, is a rock whose ground was of a blood-red colour, of the hardness of quartz, which however proved to be of volcanic origin. It contained reddish scales of felt-spar or schoerls, and seemed to be a kind of porphyry, with a horn-stone basis.

The most important objects of the author's inquiry, in this district, are the pumices; and we would refer the inquisitive mineralogist to the work itself: we can give only a short abstract of it. The pumice chiefly assumes a globular form; and the lighter kinds lie on the top, the denser below. It is not generally known, that the pumices have sometimes flowed in igneous streams, and formed veins or beds. This fact, however, the abbé has completely ascertained. Under these veins, the light globular pumices are also found; but we do not think, with him, that this forms a contradiction to the usual rule of a lighter or of the more compact lava; for these lighter pumices were probably the effects of a prior explosion. They contain felt-spars, not visible until they have undergone the farther action of fire. Some of the more compact pumices are black, in consequence of their containing bitumen. They

are all, at least *all* of *this* district, found to originate from a lava with a felt-spar base. All seem to be asbestine or amiantine, since they all contain magnesia; but the more porous comprehend about  $\frac{1}{4}$  part of alumine; the less porous, scarcely more than  $\frac{1}{15}$ : the former approach in their analysis to the felt-spars.

The abbé next describes the numerous glasses of Lipari; the ultimate change of earthy bodies, exposed to the fire. He also mentions enamels and lavas approaching to vitrification. No decided crater can at present be discovered; and the whole glassy substance is almost completely sterile. On the other sides of the island are common lavas, and some stones, whose formation is attributed to filtration. Some glassy coatings, though superficial, seem to have been produced, not by a beginning vitrification, but by some process subsequent to the fusion. Lavas, partly decomposed, will not become glass in the crucible.

Internally, 'Lipari is a ruinous pile of horrid precipices, rugged cliffs, and enormous masses.' Two mountains, nearly of equal height, appear to have been the earliest volcanic productions upon this spot, and not to have depended on each other. These are Monte San Angelo and Monte della Guardia. No crater is observable in either. In a survey of a smaller mountain, that of Stoves, the abbé passed over a bed of tufa, which took the curvatures of the mountain, and seemed, in his opinion, to be the ruined materials carried down by a slimy fluid. This may have been the case with the tufa in question; but it is not, we believe, generally so. Tufa usually consists of various substances seemingly ejected from a volcano, and united by the attraction of cohesion in consequence of pressure. This, we think, we could prove from the appearances of many different masses of this kind. In the present tufa, there are various volcanic bodies, and even some pieces of 'coal' (charcoal): the lavas, the garnets, the chrysolithes, &c. discovered in it, are examined at some length. On the top of the mountain is an ample plain of tufa become earthy, mixed with shining pieces of glass, brought up by the plough. *This* tufa could not surely have been brought by a slimy current. The account of the Stoves we shall transcribe.

'Beyond this plain there is a gentle descent of about two hundred feet in length, at the end of which are the Stoves. Whatever prepossession in their favour the traveller may have conceived from hearing so much of them, he loses it the moment he sees them. They form a group of four or five caves, more like to the dens of bears than the habitations of men; and which exhibit much less of art than the edifices framed by the beaver. Every cave has an



opening at the bottom, through which the warm and humid vapours enter, and another in the top through which they pass out. I entered one of these, but was unable to remain long in it, less from the heat, for the thermometer stood at only  $48\frac{1}{2}$  degrees, than from I know not what of a suffocating nature which the air had in it. These Stoves now retain little more than their name, and are nearly deserted. In fact, though they still retained their virtue, and were efficacious in the cure of various disorders, how would it be possible to make use of them, when they are destitute of every convenience necessary to that purpose?

When M. Dolomieu visited them, the whole ground on which they stand was penetrated with hot vapours, which, under the form of a thick smoke, issued from small apertures of about an inch, or two inches, in diameter. When I was there, circumstances were much changed, as usually happens in volcanos, where the presence of fire manifests itself sometimes more and sometimes less. There was then only one aperture, of about an inch in diameter, from which, from time to time, issued a thin stream of smoke, with a strong sulphureous smell. Having enlarged this aperture, I found it surrounded by a small quantity of soft sulphures of iron (pyrites), generated by the union of iron and sulphur. The abbate Trovatini, whom I have cited in another place, likewise attests, that, at certain times, several streams of smoke ascended round the Stoves; and I shall add, that, besides the strong smell of sulphur, which I perceived on approaching the place, the ground became hot, and the fetor increased, on digging to about the depth of a foot: from which it may be concluded, that under the Stoves and the ground adjacent, some remains of sulphureous conflagration still continue. The Stoves, and the warm baths, of which we shall speak below, are the only places in the whole island where any signs are to be found of as yet unextinguished volcanos.\*  
Vol. iii. p. 43.

The decomposed lavas of these mountains are black or reddish, each owing its peculiar colour to iron, in different states. The lava itself is of the horn-stone kind, with felt-spar; but the latter, as well as the base, is frequently decomposed. The change of lava into clay, so often suggested by systematic cosmogonists, is not supported by the observations of Spallanzani.

The zeolithes of this island resemble those of other regions, not exclusively volcanic. They seem to originate, in volcanic countries, from the water of the neighbouring sea. This, our author thinks, is their source in Lipari, though no impressions of marine plants have survived the lapse of time; for this island was inhabited even in the days of Homer, and, in the time of Aristotle, it burned with a faint flame, visible only in the night. It is properly observed by the abbé, that, though

Lipari consists of glass, it does not follow that it burned more intensely than any other spot, but only that its materials were more fusible. It is evident, that the heat must have been less than  $88^{\circ}$  of Wedgwood, that of 'the furnace,' since various bodies, remaining unchanged in the glasses of Lipari, were melted by that heat. That the fire of this volcano has ever exceeded the degree mentioned, is by no means clear. If granite, as Dolomieu suspects, has been fused by it, we know, from our author's former experiments, that it must have been chiefly felt-spar. The existence of detached lavas, however, in granitic countries, is no proof, without much more minute inquiry, that granite is their base.

Felicuda, a neighbouring island, is also decidedly volcanic. It consists of an irregular mass of hills, in the highest of which, and in one other at some distance, our author discovered an evident crater. This island is chiefly distinguishable for its prismatic lavas. Their situation and appearance are thus described:

'First, These prisms have never more than three faces, one of which always remains adherent to the lava.

'Secondly, Their direction is never oblique, or transverse; but, without exception, perpendicular to the sea.

'Thirdly, They are not articulated, as they have been observed to be in some volcanic countries, especially on mount Etna, but form one continued line.

'Fourthly, In their lower extremity they descend within the water, and, in their upper, rise some feet above the level of the sea.

'Fifthly, These prismatic lavas have for their base, either the horn-stone or shoerl in the mass.' Vol. iii. p. 105.

In the other lava, round the shore, there are deep fissures, and many round vacuities, which this writer attributes to the action of gaseous fluids, though he admits of the corrosive power of sea air and spray, particularly on calcareous substances. The fissures may, however, be more probably ascribed to retraction; and to this we are rather inclined to attribute the excavation of the Grotta del Bove marino, than to the action of gasses. There is no evidence of the latter, in any instance, producing large cavities. The lavas are of the usual kind, not decomposed by sulphureous fumes, but broken into powder by the action of the air. The scorix and spongy lavas are, in this way, wholly destroyed. The parts which are covered by the tufa are alone fertile, and among these are found the glasses and pumices, detached in different proportions. Besides the usual porous pumice, there is a more compact kind; but here are no marks of its having flowed in a current. Puozzolane is also found in Felicuda.

Alicuda, the last of the Lipari islands, is evidently volcanic; and its lava is of the petro-filiceous kind. Some considerable globes of lava are found here, which do not owe their rotundity to the agitation of the waves, but to the mutual attraction of their parts, when ejected in a fluid state from the volcano. The other kind of lava is in mass; but, though of very great antiquity, it is as brilliant as lava on its first cooling, without the slightest mark of decomposition. In another part of the island, is a rock of porphyry not volcanic, evidently from its nature the original stone of the island, the matrix of each kind of lava. A more spongy lava, of a similar nature, occasionally occurs. This island is one mass of horrid, irregular, mis-shapen ruins, with scarcely any appearance of a crater but in one spot. M. Dolomieu describes it as distant only five miles from Felicuda, and thinks that the two islands were once united; but Spallanzani, by a nearer and more accurate examination, has detected these errors.

Not contented with examining the volcanos, our indefatigable naturalist explored also the bottom of the sea, between these islands. From his observations, he thinks we may conclude,

‘ First, That the part of the islands which is buried under the waters of the sea, has suffered the action of the fire in the same manner with that which is exposed to the eye of the observer. Secondly, That Vulcano, Lipari, and Saline, form one continued group of volcanized substances, which, at first, might probably have one common central conflagration, that, dividing into three branches, and affording a passage to three distinct mouths, gave birth to three islands, which conflagration, by subaltern and successive ramifications, and ejections of new matters, afterwards increased in extent. No sensible remains, indeed, of such a fire, are at present discoverable in the internal parts of Saline, nor are any observable in Lipari, its whole efficacy appearing to be confined to Vulcano. Thirdly, That Alicuda, Felicuda, and Saline, do not appear to have any volcanic communication with each other, at least in the parts that form the bed of the sea, which separates these three islands from each other; since those parts, as far as the eye can perceive, shew no signs of the action of fire. Fourthly, that these three islands, and perhaps likewise Stromboli, are situated in the vicinity of analogous but primitive rocks. The perfect resemblance of the shoals and felt-spars in these rocks, both in those that have suffered change from the fire and those that have not, is a demonstration that these crystallizations have not been taken up by the lavas when they flowed in currents, nor formed in them at the time of their congelation.’ Vol. iii. p. 163.

From Stromboli, the easternmost island, to Alicuda on the west, these islands extend 50 miles, nearly in a right line. Va-

rious instances are mentioned, where islands, produced by volcanic eruptions, are equally raised in the rectilinear direction. The quantity of vitreous matter noticed, and the number of glassy substances which, at the bottom of the sea, join Lipari and Vulcano, are unequalled in the annals of volcanic countries. Pumices sometimes occur in other parts of the world: we have the black agate of Iceland, and the gallinaceous stone of the Andes; but there are no mountains of glass and strata of pumice, except in these regions. This glass, in our author's opinion, arises from more active heat; and the usual progress is from lava to pumice, and thence to glass: the transition from pumice to glass has often been noticed in the same specimen. We cannot, however, imitate either the compact lavas or the pumices in our common fires, probably because their form is connected with peculiar gasses, which have escaped. The original colour of pumice is black, the whiteness being acquired from the air.

The origin of basalt has occasioned much disquisition. We were once fully of opinion, that this kind of stone derived its prismatic form, in the dry way, from retraction, perhaps from crystallisation: but, on farther inquiry, all the facts could not be reconciled to this origin; nor was it, on the contrary, disproved by new observations. It is with great satisfaction, that we find our author balancing in the same manner. The original Egyptian basalt, from the experiments of M. Dolomieu on the basaltic sarcophagi, is certainly not of igneous origin; while that which is noticed in the present article evidently was so. In fact, this form is derived from fusion as well as from solution, and, in each, may proceed from the same principle. If the minute parts of bodies have, from their particular attractions, a tendency to unite in peculiar forms, they will do so when their cohesion is destroyed either by fire or water. We must not, therefore, where we observe basalt, always suppose a volcano to have pre-existed.

The cause of this regular contraction has been thought to be the action of sea-water, when lavas flow into it. This opinion the abbé supports by some facts; but basaltic columns appear where the lava could not have been cooled in water, and are not discovered when this co-incidence has taken place. Many other lavas, cooled both in the sea and the air, have no such crystallisations. It was next inquired, whether the form was connected with the properties of the lava; but, on examination, this clue also failed. The cause, therefore, is still unknown. The abbé, however, leaning towards M. Dolomieu's system, has suggested a modification of it, and is inclined to attribute the configuration to *sudden* cooling, either by water or by cold winds.

As we have now concluded the subject of the Lipari islands, we shall attend to the other inquiries in a future article, which will close our account of these very instructive and interesting volumes.

(*To be continued.*)

*Plants of the Coast of Coromandel; selected from Drawings and Descriptions presented to the Honourable Court of Directors of the East-India Company, by William Roxburgh, M. D. Published, by their Order, under the Direction of Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. P. R. S. Vol. I. Imperial Folio. 3l. 10s. Boards. Nicol.*

THIS very splendid work is worthy of the patrons under whose auspices it is presented to the public, and of the diligence and ingenuity exerted in the requisite investigations. The vast continent of India affords a harvest, into which few sickles have yet been introduced. The casual glances of the ancients afforded only a foundation for a splendid tale, or suggested materials for the artful impostor; while the native Arabian and Hindû have embellished natural scenes with fictions so extravagant, and have so wildly adorned the works of nature with the tinsel of fancy, that the eye of reason and philosophy can no longer distinguish truth from invention. The excellence of the manufactures of the Indian nations, and the real or fancied superiority of their remedies, can be known and appreciated only when the materials and their sources are indisputably ascertained. The calm and patient Hindû indeed follows, with unwearied care, the slow steps of an ancient and tedious process, which European skill facilitates, and many steps of which European science anticipates; but, to produce the same effects, the same substances are required; and to know them is a point of necessary importance. This first volume, therefore, of Indian botany, we must receive with cordial regard, and consider it as the harbinger of much useful instruction; nor is it the least interesting part of the inquiry to observe, with what care nature preserves and supports her progeny in regions, where heat and inundations are, at times, equally pernicious.

Indian botany was first greatly indebted to a disciple of the Linnæan school. Kœnig, like those selected by the university of Upsal, who have so greatly added to our knowledge of nature in almost every country, was patient, temperate, and industrious. Indefatigable in his own pursuits, to which he at last fell a victim, he was willing to lessen the difficulties of others, and freely gave that assistance, which his knowledge

enabled him to impart. He was sent to Tranquebar, both as physician and naturalist; but, his salary being inadequate to his expenses in various excursions, he was retained as naturalist by the nabob of Arcot, and farther assisted by the government of Madras. Dr. Roxburgh followed him in this department; and to Dr. Russell, who was equally attached to botanical pursuits, and intimately connected with Kœnig, we owe the preface, and probably, under the direction of sir Joseph Banks, the arrangement of the work.

To the preface is annexed a list of the manuscripts bequeathed by Kœnig to Sir Joseph Banks: to which are added, the letters from Iceland to Linnæus, and a list of Kœnig's memoirs in various collections. The essays already published in different volumes of Memoirs, we should wish to see together in an English dress; for many of them we know to be highly interesting.

The plants described in this volume are thirty in number; but, as these plants, though interesting to the botanist, cannot be equally so to the general reader, we shall only give some particulars relative to those which are the most useful or important.

The gyrocarpus Jacquinii is not in the Linnæan system, though delineated by Gærtner. Its wood is white and light, and is preferred for rafts.

That part of the sandal-wood tree which is figured, is one of the branches; and we shall, on this occasion, express our regret, that, with the accurate botanical delineations which illustrate the present volume, some larger parts have not been drawn, to convey an idea of the habit of the tree. This wood is of three species; the red, the white, and the yellow. When it has been brought to Europe, its good qualities are lost. Indeed, the yellow sort is not highly esteemed as a medicine, even in India.

The chay root is a vegetable of great utility in the beautiful prints of the East-Indies. The management of the plantation of this biennial is copiously described, together with the tedious process of imparting a red, purple, and orange colour, by means of the roots. The length, and the generally uninteresting nature of these descriptions, prevent us from transcribing them. The Indian pencil, with which the flowers of the chintzes are drawn, is very simple: it consists of a piece of bamboo slit like a pen, with some sponge tied above the point, containing the coloured fluid, which is squeezed by the finger that holds the pen.

The root of the strychnos nux vomica is intensely bitter. It cures intermittent fevers, and the bites of snakes. The seeds are used in India to increase the intoxicating power of spirituous liquors, and in Europe, we apprehend, as an ingredient

in porter, in a proportion perfectly innocent. Dr. Roxburgh thinks, that the real *lignum colubrinum* is from a different tree, which was pointed out to him by a Telinga physician, though its species was not ascertained.

The use of the seeds of the *strychnos potatorum* is singular. They are employed to purify muddy water. The nut is rubbed against the sides of the vessel; and, in this state, the water is left to settle, when the impurities fall down, and the fluid remains above perfectly wholesome.

We lament that we have no plate to distinguish the habit of the *tectona grandis*, or the teak tree of the Telingas. The timber is light, and easily wrought; and it is, at the same time, strong and durable. It is employed for furniture, gun-carriages, and even ship-building.

The *ceropegia bulbosa* is a new plant, apparently trailing, and not unlike some of our *convolvuli*. It is wholly edible. The other species of *ceropegia* (*acuminata*, *tuberosa*, and *juncea*) were before undescribed. The roots, in taste, resemble a turnep.

The *periploca esculenta* is a twining perennial, with elegant flowers; but only cattle eat it. The name, therefore (that of the younger Linnæus, in his Supplement), does not appear to have been happily chosen.

The *femicarpus anacardium* is the tree which furnishes the oriental anacardium of the shops. The chief utility of this tree, in India, is derived from the acrid juice of the shell. Almost the whole is acrid, though the receptacles of the seeds, when roasted, may be eaten safely. The juice of the shell is used externally as a highly stimulating discutient, and, internally, as an anti-venereal.

The sappan wood Dr. Roxburgh has lately discovered to be a native of the chain of mountains separating the Circars from the dominions of the rajah of Berar. It is an ingredient in the chay dye. It is also a substantive dye, imparting a cheap, but fugitive red colour. The wood itself is orange: the infusion is heightened by alkalis, and destroyed by mineral acids. A solution of tin, in aqua regia, precipitates, from the infusion, a beautiful crimson lake.

The wood of the *Swietenia febrifuga* is hard, highly bitter, and astringent; and it is found to be a good succedaneum for the Peruvian bark.

The *Gærtnera racemosa* is a garden plant, remarkable for the beauty and fragrance of its flowers.

The *bassia latifolia* is chiefly valuable for its hard strong wood. Its English name, the oil-tree, is derived from the oil which its seeds afford, fit only for burning.

The *Butea frondosa* is the plaso of Rheed, the erythrina monosperma of Lamarck. It affords a clear-red astringent

gum, nearly resembling the kino of the shops. Dr. Roxburgh thinks that it differs from the kino, in being less resinous; but the latter is almost wholly soluble in pure water, and the tinctures do not become turbid when water is added. The flowers are useful as a yellow dye, which may be reddened to a deep orange, or varied to a lemon colour; but these hues are not very permanent. The watery extract is superior in colour to gamboge, and has not fallen, after a year's trial. Lac insects reside on it, though no trial seems to have been made of *their* colour. The *butea superba* is truly superb: its flowers are of the most vivid beautiful tints. It is a twining plant, supported by large trees.

The wood of the *ailanthus excelsa* is light; fit only for rafts.

The bark of the *sterculia urens* is astringent; and the seeds are edible, when roasted.

The *salvadora Persica* affords a bark highly stimulant; but it is of little utility.

*Poems, by J. Hucks, A. M. Fellow of Catharine Hall, Cambridge. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.*

MR. HUCKS has already appeared before the public as a traveller through North Wales\*; and the little volume which he then published contained a specimen of his poetical powers. The present volume consists of miscellaneous pieces thrown together without any methodical arrangement. The first of these, entitled the Retrospect, is a desultory poem; but the writer possesses not sufficient genius to support such a poem in blank verse. His verses, however, are not inharmonious: his language is free from the awkward inversions with which this metre has so frequently been disfigured; and, though the poem discovers not the higher charms of imagination, it does honour to the sentiments and feelings of the author.

‘ Spirit of death,

That thro’ the ranks of war dost range unseen!  
O God of battles, when shall slaughter cease,  
And man awake from this strange dream of life?  
Will not the tears of pity, and the cries  
Of countless orphans; and the shrieks of death,  
Relentless power! nor even the suppliant look  
Of mildly beaming mercy stay thine arm?  
It were a sight that would high heaven rejoice,  
If the proud victor in the awful hour

\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XVIII. p. 115.



Of widely wasting war; and with the wreath  
 Of glory crown'd, amid the loud acclaim  
 Of warlike soldiery, flush'd with crimson pride  
 Of conquest — o'er the dying and the dead,  
 If haply he should cast one pitying look,  
 Droop his red sword, and weep the work of death.' P. 13.

The connection of thought is not always sufficiently obvious in these pieces. Of this fault a remarkable instance occurs in the following lines.

' Was it Philip's arms  
 Or Philip's gold unbarr'd the gates of Greece?  
 ' Peace a poor exile from life's rocky bourn,  
 Weeps in some vale obscure, and often starts,  
 As the low murmurs of the distant war,  
 Die on the hollow gales, and speak of death:  
 While virtue sitting 'midst the wrecks of time,  
 Sighs for the fall of justice and of truth.' P. 20.

The invocation to Liberty opens with strange incongruity.

' Hail thou! that like life's genial current, flow'st  
 Warm from my heart, and animat'st my frame,  
 Blest liberty! heav'n's bounteous gift to man,  
 Nature's rich legacy, our charter'd right;  
 Thou dweller on the mountains! what is life,  
 Unless thou smilest on it's downward path?  
 How sweet the produce of thy hardy soil!' P. 73.

Sometimes Mr. Hucks has introduced the Alexandrine into his blank verse; a licence altogether unnecessary and unjustifiable.

In the odes, the stanzas are too long. We wish indeed that the author had adopted a regular lyric measure, as he appears not to have known where to stop. His expressions may often be traced to Mr. Bowles; and, in a particular instance (p. 81), there is so close a resemblance to a sonnet of that gentleman, as almost to deserve the imputation of plagiarism. Mr. Hucks, however, has shown his judgment in chusing so excellent a model.

The little poem to Hope reminded us of a certain song by a person of quality. A more favourable specimen of the smaller pieces cannot be selected than the first sonnet.

' TO FREEDOM.

' On Gallia's land I saw thy faded form,  
 Dim thro' the midnight mist — The rock thy bed —  
 The livid lightning flash'd, and the wild storm  
 Fell blasting, keen, and loud, around thy head,  
 And peace sat by, and pour'd forth many a tear.

To other realms I mark'd thy mournful flight,  
 While slowly bursting from the clouds of night,  
 Gleam'd the pale moon upon thy blunted spear.  
 Tho' exil'd still from Europe's purple plain,  
 Oh! fly not, Freedom! from our happier shore;  
 The tyrant's frown, or anarchy's wild train,  
 Too long do Gallia's harass'd sons deplore:  
 But never from old Ocean's favourite isle,  
 Freedom! withdraw thy renovating smile.' p. 159.

Some poems by Mr. Heald conclude the volume. Mr. Hucks has introduced them with the partiality of friendship; but the subsequent passage will prove that his friend is not wholly destitute of poetical genius.

' Ev'n now perhaps, confronting armies meet,  
 Loud roll the drums, the thundering cannons roar,  
 Rocks the dire field beneath unnumber'd feet,  
 And horror waves his locks bedropt with gore.

' Thro' dust in whirlwinds driv'n, inconstant seen,  
 Thick flash the swords, the frequent victim falls;  
 While o'er his mangled trunk, and ghastly mien,  
 Hosts trampling rush, where maniac fury calls.

' Say, soldier! say, grim spectacle of pain,  
 What syren lur'd thee, from thy peaceful home;  
 To leave thy poor, thy small domestic train,  
 For toils of arms, o'er billowy deeps to roam.

' No beams of glory cheer thy hapless lot,  
 Thy name descends not to a future age,  
 Impell'd to combat for thou knew'st not what,  
 And urg'd to slaughter, by another's rage:

' Thy widow'd wife, thine orphan children weep,  
 And beg their scanty meal from door to door,  
 While gash'd with wounds, thy limbs dishonour'd sleep,  
 And waste and moulder, on a foreign shore.' p. 178.

Mr. Heald appears to have written hastily.

' When scepter'd kings are hurried to the tomb,  
 Woe's sable vestments nameless thousands wear;  
 When worth domestic meets an early doom,  
 Few are the numbers, but the grief sincere.' p. 171.

The author's meaning would have been better expressed, if he had substituted *careless* for *nameless*, in the second line, and *mourners* for *numbers* in the fourth.

Had he corrected the elegy, so obvious an emendation could not, we think, have escaped him.

*On Rheumatism, and Gout; a Letter addressed to Sir George Baker, Bart. M. D. &c. By John Latham, M. D. &c. 8vo. 2s. Longman.*

IF an opinion were merely speculative, or if it were offered by a person whose rank and character would not contribute to disseminate error, we might analyse it with less care, or oppose it more shortly and with less anxiety. In this case, we are perhaps more particularly required to decide with attention: Dr. Latham's letter has produced an answer more than double its bulk; and other opponents will probably appear.

After a mature consideration, we think our author's opinion untenable; and, if we understand it, the explanation which he gives will at once contribute to its destruction: we say, '*if we understand it*;' for the difficulty lies so near the surface, that we are surprised it did not occur in the enunciation. He describes, in the usual manner, the gradually descending series of arteries, and the gradually ascending series of lymphatics: 'in the exquisitely fine and slender radicles of the lymphatic vessels,' he places 'the seat of rheumatism.'

'I think we may be allowed to assume it as an incontrovertible fact, that any obstacle to the free passage of a fluid through a canal, must of necessity occasion an accumulation in the several streams from which the canal is supplied; and that these also, having their current interrupted, must thereby as necessarily impede the course of the numberless rivulets which should otherwise ordinarily flow into them. And this we find universally to be the case with respect to the lymphatic system: for whatever may be the obstructing cause, every vessel immediately leading to the part obstructed must be filled, and consequently the vessels forming the next series must be also distended; a swelling and turgescence must therefore always arise in extent proportionate to the size and number of collateral and anastomosing branches which may for a certain space divert the fluid, and then circuitously convey it into the regular trunk again.

'Every body knows what usually happens when a gland in the axilla has been so greatly enlarged (no matter from what cause) as to prevent the fluid not only from passing through it, but also by pressing upon the neighbouring lymphatics, from passing through them also; that the arm swells, and for a time remains in almost intolerable pain until the swollen gland subsides, or until the fluid finds a passage by other more indirect courses. If it be objected that the sanguiferous system is here also obstructed from the same cause, and that thence alone may arise the painful distension of the limb, I would answer, that where lymphatic glands have been cut

out by the knife, as must be the case when in the removal of a cancerous breast they have been found to be diseased from the absorbed sanies, that then where there is no tumor, but a considerable vacuity from an actual loss of substance, an interruption takes place from the destruction of the usual passages, tumefaction is produced, and pain equally excruciating follows. When a diseased gland is extirpated from the groin, as now and then has been practised in some syphilitic cases, the leg and thigh will long afterwards continue in a painfully tumefied state, until the collateral canals shall be capable of conveying forwards the accumulated fluid. We have all of us seen, after some difficult cases of parturition, that one or both of the lower extremities have become œdematous and excessively painful during a very considerable length of time, until the lymphatic vessels of the pelvis, which have suffered by the difficulty of the labour, shall have recovered from the injury then sustained, or until others in their vicinity shall, by gradual enlargement, be fully competent to discharge their office for them. I know however that there are instances where the pain is not so great as I have generally stated it to be in the examples which I have here adduced of obstructed lymphatics; but I believe those will only be found to happen in very debilitated systems, where there must consequently also be a very diminished energy in the action of the absorbents.' P. 10.

It is obvious, that an obstruction in the small *arteries* would produce the effect here described; for the current of the blood would impact fluids, in vessels already obstructed, and extend the obstruction. The course of the lymph, however, is opposite. If an 'exquisitely fine and slender radicle' be obstructed, the active power of its immediately succeeding trunk remains, and the circulation goes on, till all the fluids, in the ascending series, are carried to the heart. If the exhalants continue to pour out more lymph, this will no more increase the obstruction, than any hydropic swelling; for, confessedly the minutest branch being obstructed, there is no *vis à tergo* to impact or increase the obstruction. This difficulty is doubly felt in the instances adduced of diseased glands; for, in these, the obstruction is felt below, from the interruption of the ascending branches; and, in these also, the *vis à tergo* operates. It is scarcely necessary to mention, on this occasion, that the obstruction of the sanguiferous system always accompanies, and increases the tumour arising from swollen glands; that, in these cases, there is no fever, or only a secondary one; and that the pain is tensive only, not the acute rack of rheumatism.

According to this system, tumour and redness must always be concomitants of the rheumatism; for the obstruction will

soon be communicated to the sanguiferous system. But, so far as our observation has extended, they are very far from being constant attendants; and swelling, in particular, is a salutary symptom, usually accompanied with an alleviation of pain, and often the fore-runner of a cure. In Dr. Latham's system, and his illustrations, the cold, the most usual cause of rheumatism, constricts the minute lymphatics, particularly round the joints, where they are more superficial; yet, in the history, and the treatment, it is expressly pointed out, that fever precedes, and that the pain often shifts from one limb to another. It is evident therefore, that, independently of the local affection from cold, a general disease of the system exists, and is the primary disorder; and, according to our author's statement, we cannot say why pain is removed, or what occasions the sudden dissolution of the impacted fluid. At least the explanation given of the metastasis is insufficient, and not entirely consonant with the system propounded.

We agree with Dr. Latham, that increased pain, in bed, is not an absolute criterion of the acute rheumatism; but his distinction between the acute and chronic state does not appear to us exact. He considers one as arising from an evident cause; the other as brought back in consequence of increased irritability by slighter and sometimes unperceived causes. In reality, the acute rheumatism sometimes degenerates into chronic, without any intermediate state; and the chronic species, far from being an inflammatory disease, is closely allied to paralysis, and seems to consist in spasm from a weakened state of the extreme arteries. The doctor indeed contends that rheumatic pains do not proceed from inflammation, because they never terminate either in suppuration or gangrene; but he might, with equal reason, contend that glands are never inflamed, because the disease terminates in scirrhus. We can only admit the argument, when he shall inform us, what renders suppuration and gangrene the necessary and only terminations of inflammation. We daily see inflammations terminate in resolution, in consequence of effusion; and the rheumatism does the same.

On the subject of the cure of the rheumatism, we have some remarks to make, though no very particular objection to offer. We are surprised that the author should consider it as indifferent to what part the pain is confined, when the remedies are to be selected. He would surely choose to increase the secretion from the neighbouring glands; at least he would find it difficult to show, that turpentine is as useful in rheumatic affections of the extremities, as in sciatica or lumbago. In consequence of his system, he is obliged to urge the relaxant method, in opposition to the stimulant; and

his attempt to evade the objection derived from the use of volatile alkali is untenable, both in a physiological and a chemical view. What would he say if he should find a sturdy robust countryman cure acute rheumatism, at its first attack, by volatile tincture of guaiacum or turpentine? He must consider it as fatal to his system; and this we have often seen. He does not approve bark in the early stage; nor can we conceive on what principle this remedy, so fashionable at present in the metropolis, can be employed. That this and other remedies act by being really present in the blood-vessels, is a position which he will not easily establish.

The gout and the rheumatism, in his opinion, are nearly related. We used to consider them as diseases essentially different. Reflection and experience, however, will often teach, if the practitioner is not wilfully blind; and we are ready to acknowledge, that we have met with cases, where each was mingled, or of that anomalous nature, in which both were distinguishable, and yet one could not be accurately separated from the other. But, in general, they are separate diseases; and the diagnosis, though sometimes not easy, is frequently to be ascertained. In Dr. Latham's view, they are related, because the same parts are chiefly affected—the vessels of the joints. We think the same, though we regard these vessels as the extreme arteries, and are of opinion that, in *acute* rheumatism, the affection is not so exclusively confined to the joints, as in regular gout.

Dr. Latham thinks the gout not hereditary, as the son often follows the habits of the father; but this opinion seems to arise from a little affectation of paradox. We have often seen the regular gout from the age of fourteen to twenty; we have seen it in boys, whose only drink has been water; and in men who have been the most sober and active from apprehension of it. Another singularity is, that a fit of the gout is not salutary. To this we would oppose, without farther argument, the general feelings of gouty men, and (may we be allowed to add?) the axiom of *married* authorities, that 'the gout repays the nurse.' That a man by abstinence and resolution may prevent the recurrence of gout, we think a position equally unfounded. Among the doubtful points of practice, we reckon the use of sedatives in the gout, when it attacks the stomach, and the external application of emollients. The former, however, must be left to the judgment of the physician: there are some cases in which they are certainly proper.

*An Essay on the Gout, in which is introduced a candid Examination, and a Refutation attempted, of Dr. Latham's Principles, lately published, on this Subject; and others advanced, deduced from Facts occurring in the Author's own Case, and from his practical Experience of many Years. By George Wallis, M. D. 8vo. 4s. Scwed. Robinsons. 1798.*

AS the author of this essay is himself a sufferer from the gout, it has attracted much of his attention. His chief argument against Dr. Latham's system resembles one which, we have said, lies very near the surface—that an obstruction in an incipient lymphatic cannot occasion any farther or additional obstruction, as no force in the rear can impact the fluids. He notices, with some indignation, the unguarded assertion of Dr. Latham, that to sir George Baker's judgment *alone* he will submit. We thought it rash; but reflected, that 'the children of this world are wiser than the children of light;' and we had little doubt, that the opinion of sir George upon the subject would correspond with that which we entertained.

Dr. Wallis, having adduced the opinions of the principal authors on this subject, concludes that a *fit* of the gout is occasioned by the *stimulus* of morbid matter, which, when floating in the general system, produces *sedative* power on the nervous system; that the gout, when misplaced, depends on this acrimony carried to other parts; and, when retrocedent, on debility which renders the constitution unable to fix it in the extremities. This theory so nearly approaches the common opinion (for it is the usual doctrine of systematics, joined with the sedative impressions of Dr. Cullen), that we need not offer any remarks on it. The whole has been repeatedly examined, and every step combated and defended with equal anxiety.

The second part contains directions for the management of patients in the gout, both during the fit, and in various anomalies. To our author's plans we have no material objection, if we except the application of poultices, which we have found injurious. Indeed we are not perfectly convinced, that leeches and blistering are wholly safe. The gout seems to consist in a peculiar inflammation, which must have its course; and every mode of lessening it, lessens its effects as a remedy. We do not, however, depend on reasoning alone: some disagreeable circumstances have sometimes followed these practices, which, though they may have been merely accidental, contribute to excite suspicion. The gout, Dr. Wallis thinks, is hereditary; and he combats Dr. Latham's opinion on this subject, though he agrees with that physician in

thinking that the gout is a cure for those diseases only which depend on this disorder ; in other words, that the fit only relieves the diseases, which the accumulating matter had occasioned.

The third part is on the means of lengthening the intervals between the fits ; and, as our author, in examining the predisposition, finds it to consist in a torpor (more properly a debility of the system), and, in tracing the occasional causes, thinks that they meet in the effect of increasing this torpor, his directions are deduced from these sources. He gives judicious directions, with respect to the management in every circumstance both where the constitution is less, and where it is more, debilitated : but from this part we can select nothing new or particularly interesting. The rules, relating to study, will probably suit others, besides arthritics.

‘ Study may with great numbers be said to involve both pleasurable and rational pursuits ; but study pursued to too great length becomes irrational, because it lays the foundation for disease : for the mind cannot be a long time and repeatedly employed in close contemplation but the body very sensibly feels the effects ; men often rise from close mental application as much fatigued as from the severest corporeal exercise, with this difference, that the accumulation of fluids attend the former, while dissipation is the consequence of the latter ; hence the first is more productive of a variety of mischiefs ; for the moving powers of the machine are not only rendered less active, but the constitution is surcharged with a load of humours, which ought to have been carried out of the habit ; hence arise indigestion, obstructions, languor, impeded perspiration, and a variety of other affections, which though occasioned by torpor of the moving powers, particularly the nerves, still add to that cause, and greatly assist in creating a variety of diseases, amongst the number of which gout may be esteemed one of the most certain.

‘ Intense study, therefore, should be avoided, or where study becomes indispensable, its evil effects should be counteracted or prevented.

‘ Men devoting much of their time to mental application, should employ their mornings chiefly in this way ; allowing time for properly recruiting the spirits ; when the mind appears fatigued, they should desist ; take exercise, chiefly riding, and divert their thoughts by some pleasant amusement ; eat and drink moderately of such things that best agree with them, and are easy of digestion, go to bed and rise early, and particularly keep the body free from costiveness.

‘ Immediately after dinner they should by no means have recourse to study, not till some hours afterwards, till their food is pretty well digested, and they feel themselves light and alert ;



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otherwise indigestion will be the consequence, and all its train of unfriendly associates : the same may be said of those who live in a sedentary and indolent manner ; for without exercise, it is impossible for the constitution to remain long in a state of health.' p. 167.

We shall conclude this article with the doctor's concise recapitulation of his own opinions.

' I have said the gout was occasioned by an acrimonious humor, hereditarily or adventitiously acquired, in constitutions predisposed, or having a strong propensity to such a disposition to feel its effects ; which predisposition arose from a peculiar torpor of the nervous system, producing languor, lassitude, &c. at first, and progressively uneasiness, and relaxation of the stomach, obstructions of the hepatic system, and other abdominal viscera, costiveness, and impeded perspiration, till the gouty matter was deposited upon the extremities by a law of the animal œconomy producing pain ; which pain, acting as a stimulus, is considered as an instrument of nature, to relieve the constitution from the offending cause, but which pain is increased to a degree of violence more than necessary, and made of longer duration, as well as its effects, by the continuance of some organic indispositions, occasioned by the first causes, proving themselves sources of other affections.

' In order to alleviate all which, purgatives and emetics are prescribed in the first instance, as deobstruents ; to the last of which are ascribed a diaphoretic and general stimulant power ; and where systematic debility requires them, cordial stomachics, tonics, and stimulants, as invigorators of the system and stomach, producing at the same time perspiration ; by which means the constitutional embarrassments are removed, and nature left at liberty to perform her own salutary operations, in order perfectly to relieve the machine ; the benefits received by which various modes are exactly similar to what are produced by Bath waters, though perhaps in some cases in a less perfect degree.' p. 197.

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*A Description of the Country from thirty to forty Miles round Manchester ; containing its Geography, natural and civil ; Principal Productions ; River and Canal Navigations ; a particular Account of its Towns and chief Villages ; their History, Population, Commerce, and Manufactures ; Buildings, Government, &c. The Materials arranged, and the Work composed by J. Aikin, M. D. Embellished and illustrated with Seventy-three Plates. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. Stockdale.*

THE increase of our topographical histories is a circumstance creditable to the literary industry of the country, and

highly advantageous in facilitating an acquaintance with the natural and artificial sources of its wealth. The accumulated facts, which constitute the public history of a state, may indeed excite a profitable curiosity in mankind, and enable the philosopher to deduce conclusions, important to the political happiness of the species: it must, however, be allowed, that a considerable portion of applause is due to those modest but useful writers, who explore local annals, describe scenes dedicated to the busy pursuits of trade, and trace the progress of a country through the various gradations of manufacturing enterprise, which have conducted it to opulence and distinction.

In this point of view, the patriotic reader will experience much pleasure in perusing the present work, which relates to a district, celebrated both for its natural beauties, and for the variety and importance of its manufactures.

The original plan of the work was confined to a small district; but the extension of it is a circumstance, which will not, we apprehend, displease the public, as the task of description has been, for the most part, executed in a manner that claims approbation. The pen of the literary veteran, Dr. Aikin, while it portrays, in a pleasing manner, the varieties of nature, has given, to the plodding details of trade, a lively interest.

After a rapid sketch of the landscape of the country comprehended in the description, the reader is presented with a *coup d'œil* of its various manufactures.

‘ The centre we have chosen is that of the cotton manufacture; a branch of commerce, the rapid and prodigious increase of which is, perhaps, absolutely unparalleled in the annals of trading nations. Manchester is, as it were, the heart of this vast system, the circulating branches of which spread all around it, though to different distances. To the north-western and western points it is most widely diffused, having in those parts established various head-quarters, which are each the centres to their lesser circles. Bolton, Blackburn, Wigan, and several other Lancashire towns, are stations of this kind; and the whole intervening country takes its character from its relation to them. Stockport to the south, and Ashton to the east, of Manchester, are similar appendages to this trade; and its influence is spread, more or less, over the greatest part of Lancashire, and the north-eastern portion of Cheshire. Under the general head of the cotton manufacture may be comprized a variety of fabrics not strictly belonging to it, but accompanying it, and in like manner centering in Manchester and its vicinity.

‘ To the north-east and east the cotton trade is soon entrenched upon by the woollen manufacture, an object, likewise, of vast importance, which extends through great part of the West Riding

of Yorkshire, and fills its most bleak and sterile tracts with population and opulence. This has not any one common centre, but the towns of Leeds, Halifax, Bradford, Wakefield, Huddersfield, Saddleworth, and Rochdale, are each centres of particular branches and varieties of the woollen manufacture. This trade, though of older standing and slower advance than the cotton trade, and likewise rivalled in other parts of the kingdom, has, nevertheless, experienced a very rapid increase in late years. It would seem as if a hilly country was peculiarly adapted to it, since it almost ceases where Yorkshire descends into the plain.

‘ Southward of the limits of the clothing trade, our circle comprehends the town of Sheffield, so famous for its cutlery and hardware. Passing into Derbyshire it includes all the mining and mineral country of the Peak, and extends to the commercial town of Chesterfield. Staffordshire, besides other branches of manufacture, affords a most curious and valuable one, the pottery, which may be said, as a national object, to be the creation of a few years past, produced by a fortunate combination of chymical skill with taste in the fine arts. This county also participates with Cheshire in the spinning and winding of silk, which is carried on to a moderate extent in several places. Cheshire possesses another article of great importance to the national revenues,—the salt, which is obtained in inexhaustible abundance from its rock-pits and springs.

‘ Though the cotton-trade peculiarly characterises Lancashire as a commercial county, yet it has other considerable branches of manufacture; as that of sail-cloth and coarse linens, of nails, of watch tools and movements, of cast-plate and common glass. Its great port of Liverpool, the second for extent of business in the kingdom, and that which has received the most rapid increase, is also within our limits; as is, likewise, the ancient port of Chester.’  
r. iii.

A succeeding portion of the work is occupied with a general account of Lancashire, Cheshire, Derbyshire, the West-Riding of Yorkshire, and the northern part of Staffordshire; and the productions of those parts of England are well described.

From this portion of the work, we will offer two extracts; one respecting the salt of Cheshire, the other concerning the lead mines of Derbyshire.

‘ The mineral product for which Cheshire is most remarkable is its salt, with which it is stored in inexhaustible quantities. . . . It is found in the two states of solid rock, and brine springs. The first is obtained only at Northwich, where large quantities are raised, part of which is refined on the spot, and part exported in its rough state. Brine springs are met with in several places in the county, and the salt is procured from them by boiling. The ave-

rage quantity of salt made annually in Cheshire is upwards of 74,000 tons, of which, as well as of the unrefined rock salt, a great proportion is exported abroad, forming a very beneficial article of commerce. That consumed at home pays a large sum to the public revenue.' P. 49.

' Veins of lead ore, on account of their position in the earth, are distinguished by the different names of *pipe*, *rake*, and *flat* works. A pipe-work lies between two measures of lime-stone regularly extending above and below. It consists of several lines or branches running nearly parallel to each other, which have a general communication by means of slender threads, or leadings, as they are called by the miners. The rock is sometimes pierced through by these leadings, which it is thought right to follow, as they often conduct to a fresh range. Should no ore be found on such a pursuit, the breadth of the work is ascertained: its length is indeterminate, depending much upon the dipping of the measures. If this be great, it begins to decline, or cannot be pursued further on account of water. The rake-vein is found in the chasms or clefts of the lime-stone, and consequently breaks through the measures and sinks into the earth. It sometimes penetrates 150 or 200 yards, generally in a slanting direction; and it has been followed to the distance of four miles from the place where it was first discovered. The flat work resembles the pipe, but has no leader or stem like that. It spreads wider, and seldom extends above 100 yards. It is also found near the surface and in the solid rock, and is very weak and poor, being seldom thicker than a man's finger.

' The veins of lead ore are generally enclosed in a yellow, red, or black soil, and are firmly connected with cauk, spar, or some other mineral. Their direction is not uniform. The pipes, never penetrating the measures, follow the dip of the country in which they are found. The rakes run still more variously; in the Hyde Peak, generally pointing east and west; in the wapentake of Wirksworth, north and south. Sometimes two veins cut each other at right angles: sometimes the pipe and rake unite and run together a short way, becoming stronger and richer. It is difficult to determine which of these two veins is most common, or most productive; the pipe, however, seem most generally valuable.' P. 76.

The 'Account of River and Canal Navigations' is very interesting. The increase of inland navigation, an object highly important to the domestic commerce of the country, may be attributed to the liberal and enterprising spirit of the duke of Bridgewater, whose perseverance overcame obstacles and difficulties, which the most sanguine projectors had thought it impossible to surmount. The account concludes with a sketch of the life of the celebrated Brindley, who at-

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fisted the duke in his projects, and whose merit, as an engineer of bold and truly original genius, will ever reflect honour on the country that gave him birth.

The detail relative to Manchester is accurate. From the historical part of it we select an anecdote, illustrative of the popular spirit of the inhabitants, and which seems to prove that the patriots, or (as some perhaps will term them) the *jacobins*, who, of late years, have distinguished themselves in that town, are lineally descended from the *roundheads* of the last century.

‘ At the breaking out of the civil war in 1642, possession was taken of Manchester in behalf of the parliament by the militia of the country, who were joined by many of the inhabitants and people of the vicinity; and fortifications were thrown up at the end of the streets. At this time the town chiefly consisted of Market-street-lane, Dean’s-gate, Miln-gate, and a few streets about the market-place. In September 1642, the earl of Derby marched from Warrington with a force of about 4000 foot and 300 horse, with seven pieces of ordnance, in order to seize upon Manchester for the king. On being refused admission, he commenced an assault upon the defenders from Salford and the end of Dean’s-gate, which proving unsuccessful, he retired after a few days. This petty attempt, in which the town is said to have lost only four men killed and as many wounded, cannot but give a contemptible idea of the state of military skill in this island at the commencement of those troubles. In the next year the town was fortified and strongly garrisoned, and it continued in the hands of the parliament during the remainder of the war.’ p. 153.

Of the remarkable increase of the population of Manchester, the following account is given within eighteen years.

‘ In 1773 a survey of Manchester was executed with accuracy, which gave the following results :

	Manchester.	Salford.	Total.
Houses (inhabited)	3402	866	4268
Families,	5317	1099	6416
Male inhabitants,	10,548	2248	12,796
Female ditto,	11,933	2517	14,450
Both sexes,	22,481	4765	27,246
Persons to a house,	$6\frac{1}{2}$	To a family,	$4\frac{1}{2}$

‘ At the same period, the township of Manchester (detached from the town) contained 311 houses, 361 families, 947 males, 958 females; total, 1905.

‘ And the whole parish of Manchester, comprizing thirty-one townships in a compass of sixty square miles, contained 2371 houses, 2525 families, 6942 males, 6844 females; total, 13,786 inhabitants.

' The whole number, then, of inhabitants in the town, township, and parish of Manchester, and in Salford, amounted to 42,927.

' At Christmas 1788, the numbers by enumeration were, in the township of Manchester, 5916 houses, 8570 families, 42,821 persons; in the township of Salford, about 1260 houses. The whole number of people in both towns might then be reckoned at more than 50,000.

' During the year 1791, the christenings in these towns amounted to 2960; the burials to 2286. These numbers, by the usual mode of calculating, will give from sixty-five to seventy-four thousand inhabitants—an increase almost unparalleled!' p. 156.

We afterwards meet with some curious information on the subject of the Manchester manufactures: but we cannot conveniently give an extract from this part of the volume.

The metamorphic powers exercised by commerce on the manners and habits of society, have frequently attracted the speculation of the philosopher. In the present work, the different æras of the history of the manufactures and trade of Manchester are thus, and we think not fancifully, distinguished.

' The trade of Manchester may be divided into four periods. The first is that, when the manufacturers worked hard merely for a livelihood, without having accumulated any capital. The second is that, when they had begun to acquire little fortunes, but worked as hard, and lived in as plain a manner as before, increasing their fortunes as well by economy as by moderate gains. The third is that, when luxury began to appear, and trade was pushed by sending out riders for orders to every market town in the kingdom. The fourth is the period in which expense and luxury had made a great progress, and was supported by a trade extended by means of riders and factors through every part of Europe.' p. 181.

The characteristic features of these different periods are strikingly and pleasantly delineated. From the various anecdotes which are here introduced, we extract one, calculated to show that the extraordinary animal, man, is not less the creature of *custom* than of *versatility*.

' There now resides in the market place of Manchester, a man of the name of John Shawe, who keeps a common public house, in which a large company of the respectable Manchester tradesmen meet every day after dinner, and the rule is to call for sixpenny-worth of punch. Here the news of the town is generally known. The high change at Shawe's is about six; and at eight o'clock every person must quit the house, as no liquor is ever served out after that hour; and should any one be presumptuous enough to stop,

Mr. Shawe brings out a whip with a long lash, and proclaiming aloud, "Past eight o'clock, gentlemen!" soon clears his house.

' For this excellent regulation Mr. Shawe has frequently received the thanks of the ladies of Manchester, and is often toasted; nor is any one a greater favourite with the townsmen than this respectable old man. He is now very far advanced in life, we suppose not much short of 80, and still a strong, stout, hearty man. He has kept strictly to this rule for upwards of fifty years, accompanied by an old woman servant for nearly the same length of time.

' It is not unworthy of remark, and to a stranger is very extraordinary; that merchants of the first fortunes quit the elegant drawing room, to sit in a small dark dungeon, for this house cannot with propriety be called by a better name—but such is the force of long established custom!' p. 188.

We commend the judicious gratitude of the Manchester ladies to this honest old *caupo*, and wish, for the sake of many 'fair married dames,' that the vintners of other great towns would treat their guests in a similar mode. Even the gentlemen would not have occasion to murmur at such regulations; for the admonitory sound of the *whip* might frequently preclude the louder and less transient expostulations of the *curtain*.

To the account of Manchester, are subjoined some particulars of the life of Mr. Byrom, who was celebrated, in his time, as a professor of short-hand; and whose sprightly poetic productions have long been relished as literary *entremets*. Another entertaining biographical sketch consists of the memoirs of that eccentric character, 'Mr. John Collier, *alias* Tim Bobbin,' who wrote some humorous pieces in the Lancashire dialect, and acted as schoolmaster, musician, and painter.

In the statement which respects the courts of law holden at Preston, we have observed several mistakes; and as the juridical part of any history is of great importance, we subjoin a *note*, more correctly and distinctly specifying the powers of the courts alluded to, and their forms of proceeding.

' Preston enjoys the advantage of being the seat of several law courts\*. The duchy of Lancaster holds a court of chancery

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\* The chancellor of the county palatine holds a court of chancery, and has the same powers within his jurisdiction, as the lord high chancellor of Great Britain. In this court bills are filed, and causes are heard by the vice-chancellor, who is usually a gentleman of experience at the bar. The forms of proceeding are similar to those of the high court of chancery: the vice-chancellor, chief clerk, registrar, keeper of the seals, and also five clerks, are appointed to this court by the chancellor of the duchy. Original writs are

here, appointed to hear and determine all causes according to some peculiar customs held among themselves. The chancellor of the duchy is chief judge of this court, and has proper officers under him, viz. a vice-chancellor, an attorney-general, chief clerk, register and examiner, five attorneys and clerks, a prothonotary and his deputy, and clerks of the crown and peace. There is also a county court, which sits every Tuesday in the year, and issues writs which compel appearance without bail for any sum above forty shillings, and on failure of appearance execution follows. Another court is called the county arrest, whence process issues for sums under forty shillings, also without bail. Another is that of the wapentake, in process like the last mentioned, but only for the hundred of Amounderness. Writs holding to bail are issued from the prothonotary's office, upon which the sheriff grants a warrant for apprehension. Other writs are issued from this office, not holding to bail, but on serving a copy a process takes place in the common pleas. The borough court issues processes for debts up to ten pounds; which compel appearance, or, on failure of it, attach goods in execution to be sold within a limited number of days. This court can likewise send criminals to the new prison, as it takes place of the former house of correction. The quarter sessions are held at Preston by adjournment from Lancaster, on the Thursday in the week after Epiphany.' p. 284.

The account of Liverpool, its trade, docks, shipping, &c. will afford abundant gratification to the commercial reader.

'The docks' (says our topographer) 'extend along the river nearly the breadth of the town. In the centre is the Old Dock, running up a considerable way towards the heart of the town. To the west of it lies the Salthouse Dock, and the basin or dry dock, serving as the common entrance to both. These were the first constructed. To the north of these is situated George's Dock, with its dry basin, the next of these works, hollowed and

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made out to the sheriff, returnable into the court of common-pleas of the duchy, which holds jurisdiction of suits within the county palatine, similar to the court of common pleas at Westminster, having a prothonotary. Upon a process issuing out of the court of common pleas, the defendant may be holden to bail, if the debt amount to 5l. and the proper affidavit be filed. The suits are tried at the assizes holden by commission under the seal of the county. All writs (except that of *habeas corpus*, and serviceable process) issuing out of the superior courts at Westminster, to this county, are directed to the chancellor, or his deputy, by whom a writ is sent to the sheriff. The court of the county palatine has this advantage over the courts at Westminster, that no bailable process can be had, unless the debt amount to 20l. The county court is generally holden at the town-hall in Preston, every Tuesday four weeks. This court holds pleas of actions under 40s. without writ, in the manner of other county courts, and above 40s. by writ. It is holden before two suitors and the under-sheriff; and the causes are decided by twelve jurors of the county. REV.



embanked out of the river beach. And to the south are the newest docks, called the King's and Queen's, with one common dry basin at the entrance. The duke of Bridgewater has a small dock of his own between these and the Salthouse dock.

' The length of quay afforded by all these capacious basins, will appear on calculation to be so great, as to eclipse all the most famous of the river or shore quays in the different sea-ports ; and though their magnificence of prospect is diminished, their utility is increased, by having them accumulated within a moderate compass of ground, rather than extended in one long line.

' The vast labour and expence of these works will readily be conceived by one who considers that they must all have been followed by hand from the shore, in continual opposition to the tides, which often in an hour destroy the labour of weeks ; and that the piers must be made of sufficient height and strength to bear the daily efforts of a sea beating in, and constantly endeavouring to recover its ancient boundaries.

' On the sides of the docks are warehouses of uncommon size and strength, far surpassing in those respects the warehouses of London. To their different floors, often ten or eleven in number, goods are craned up with great facility. Government in particular has here a very extensive tobacco warehouse, occupying a large compass of ground. The space round the docks is sufficient to give room for loading and unloading, and all the occupations of the sailors, without interruption of each other, or of the crowds of passengers. Strangers may with ease drive along the quays, and enjoy the view of the busy scene without danger or inconvenience ; a pleasure no where to be obtained on the river at London, where the close wharfs are absolutely inaccessible except by carts, and by them not to be approached without great obstruction. The entrance to the docks are crossed by draw-bridges, excellently constructed on the Dutch plan.

' On the west side of the North Dock, by the river side, is a pier forming a fine parade, 320 yards in length, and of considerable breadth, which is a favourite walk of the inhabitants and strangers. It commands a noble view of the harbour from the rock point or commencement of the sea, to the distance of several miles up the river, and a beautiful landscape on the Cheshire side.' P. 354.

In the additions to the work, the intentions of the merchants of this town to solicit a participation of the trade to India are thus noticed.

' In the year 1792, the growing wealth and prosperity of Liverpool had led its merchants to believe that they were possessed of sufficient capital, and that they were in other respects competent to the carrying on of a trade to the East Indies with advantage. They were the more impressed with this idea, as the merchants of

the United States of America had for some years been engaged in the same traffic, and were acquiring large fortunes in it. The approaching expiration of the East India company's charter, and the possibility of a partial or total abolition of the African slave trade, induced the merchants of Liverpool to hope that this would be a season peculiarly favourable for their application.' p. 608.

Resolutions, in support of this proposal, were voted at a meeting of the merchants and other inhabitants; but, on the eve of a war, it was not deemed expedient to prosecute the scheme. Though we are persuaded of the impolicy of monopolies of almost every kind, we cannot repress the sentiments of indignation at the hypocritical cant of the merchants of Liverpool, who, in their resolutions, condemned the rapacious and oppressive conduct of the East-India company, while, in their own extensive branch of commerce, the slave-trade, they have so long and so grossly violated the essential principles of policy and philanthropy! The directors and servants of the company have certainly been guilty of unjustifiable acts; but, in this instance, *Gladius accusat mæchos*: the Liverpool traders do not ask for justice with *clean hands*.

Of the traffic of Chester, it is observed, that

' it chiefly consists of the coasting and Irish trades, with a small portion of trade to foreign parts. The commodities imported are, groceries from London; linen cloth, wool, hides, tallow, feathers, butter, provisions, and other articles from Ireland; timber, deals, hemp, flax, iron, and tallow from the Baltic; kid and lamb skins from Leghorn; fruit, oil, barilla, and cork, from Spain and Portugal, and a large quantity of wine from the latter, which is the principal article of foreign import. Its exports are coal, lead, lead ore, calamine, copper plates, cast iron, and large quantities of cheese; and it is a sort of magazine for a variety of goods, raw and manufactured, sent to Ireland. From the large cheese warehouse in the river, vessels go at stated periods with loads for London. The number of ships belonging to this port, notwithstanding the above enumeration of commercial objects, is very small; yet the limits of the port extend on the Cheshire side of the Dee as far as the end of Wirral, and on the Flintshire side to the mouth of the river Clwyd. The business of ship-building is carried on here continually, and with advantage, many vessels from 100 to 500 tons being built yearly. These are reckoned to be superior in point of strength and beauty to those built at any other port in the kingdom.' p. 391.

Other towns in Cheshire are copiously described; and, among the accounts of particular parishes in Derbyshire, we find these remarks with regard to the waters of Buxton.

‘ This place, situated in a hollow, among naked and dreary hills, has been favoured by nature with the possession of one of the most valuable mineral waters in this kingdom, which has rendered it the resort of multitudes of invalids of all ranks, and has decorated it with splendid and commodious buildings.’ p. 488.

‘ There is little doubt that the warm baths of Buxton were known to the Romans, various remains of Roman workmanship having been discovered about them. Their celebrity in the later ages is little known, our writers making little mention of them till the 16th century. Buxton was much frequented in the reign of Elizabeth, and since that period, the number of persons resorting to it, and the buildings erected for their accommodation, have been continually increasing. On a chemical analysis, the waters have been found to be lightly impregnated with mineral matter, particularly calcareous earth, sea-salt, selenite, and acidulous gas, with perhaps some other permanently elastic vapour. The baths are three in number, and their degree of heat from eighty-one to eighty-two. The water is clear, sparkling, and grateful to the palate. When drank in considerable quantity, it proves, for the most part, heating and binding. The temperature of the baths is extremely agreeable to the feeling. A slight shock is felt at the first immersion, which is succeeded by a pleasant warmth. The case in which bathing is attended with the most distinguished good effects, is chronic rheumatism, many persons every year absolutely crippled by this disorder being restored to the use of their limbs. The water is found beneficial in gouty, nephritic, and bilious disorders, and in most debilities of the stomach and bowels. In these, as usual in the administration of mineral waters, much of the benefit must be imputed to the air, exercise, and change of living.’ p. 488.

The potteries of Staffordshire claim some mention. They

‘ commence at a village called Golden-hill, from whence to the other extremity of the pottery at Lane End, is something more than seven miles; a considerable part of which, by joining together, strikes the traveller as but one town, although under different names. The manufacturing of pottery wares is the general and nearly sole business of this extensive and very populous quarter; and from the great increase of inhabitants and houses in the last twenty years, (it being supposed that for every inhabitant or house then, there are at least three now) in all probability, the various towns and villages of Golden Hill, New-Field, Smith-Field, Tunstall, Long-Port, Burslem, Cobridge, Etruria, Hanley, Shelton, Stoke, Lower Lane, Lane Delf, and Lane End, will ere long be so intermixed with buildings, as to form only one town and one name.’ p. 516.

At one of these villages (Shelton) there is a manufactory of porcelain, which is 'very little, if at all, inferior, especially in the colours, to that of the East-Indies.'

Descriptions of Sheffield, Halifax, and some other towns of Yorkshire, occur near the close of the work.

We have now noticed the most material contents of this publication; and shall conclude with observing, that the variety and importance of its topics, the accuracy with which, upon the whole, they are treated, and the various graphic embellishments that accompany the work, will doubtless procure it a liberal extent of patronage, proportioned to the spirit with which it has been executed.

*Memoirs of the House of Medici. (Concluded from Vol. XXII. p. 396.)*

WE resume with pleasure the task of examining the Memoirs of the House of Medici. In the fourth chapter we find some curious details of the genius and taste of the ancient inhabitants of Etruria. The historian, artist, and antiquary, will derive much information from M. Tenhove's account of their statues, potteries, paintings, music, &c. Among the monuments of Etrurian genius, we may reckon the *cloaca maxima*.

'The Etrurians also furnished the Romans with the means of executing their principal common-shore [*sewer*] or *cloaca maxima*, under the elder Tarquin, a prince born in Etruria of a Tuscan mother, when they had made no progress in the arts, and Rome, imperial Rome was an irregular mass of cottages,

"Romuleoque recens horrebat regia culmo."

These famous reservoirs were built with a grandeur and solidity, and on such a perfect level as is astonishing both on their being first seen and on reflection. Justus Lipsius had great reason to say of them, "*Ponimus cloacas inter magnifica, et sordes has inter illos splendores;*" and their remains even strike with admiration an oriental imagination. They were carried by subterraneous excavations under the whole city of Rome, split into innumerable branches, which discharged themselves into the principal stream, and were wide and deep enough to admit of boats. On the side of each of these immense vaults there were passages for carts and waggons. They had openings also at certain distances to give light and air, and when it became dark, lamps were used.—It was a picture wonderfully singular.—Under the imperial city suspended in the air, people passed in carriages and her inhabitants sailed in boats.—Such public utility and magnificence were never in any

other instance so happily combined. Perhaps of every construction in the world it was the most extraordinary that was ever undertaken, and the Egyptian cryptes which were sepulchres, and according to Pausanias and Ammianus Marcellinus sunk 160 feet below the pyramids under the bed of the Nile, were not equal to it.' Vol. i. p. 261.

Some interesting anecdotes of their ancient painters and sculptors, with remarks on their respective merits, occur in this chapter. After recording the crimes that too often pollute the pages of history, but more particularly the annals of Italy, the author returns to the arts and sciences. Lorenzo de' Medici, at this period, forms a conspicuous figure, not only as the restorer of peace to Italy, but as the illustrious patron of men of letters. The famous Platonic academy, the university of Pisa, and the Laurentian library, are particularly mentioned as the monuments of his liberality. The account of the invention of prints will not, we think, displease our readers.

' The invention of prints, or copper-plates, was then a new discovery. Maso Finiguerra, a Florentine, the father of this art, which gives an eternity beyond the power of the pencil, usually traced impressions on clay, instead of wax, of the subject he intended to engrave on silver. With the assistance of melted sulphur poured into his mould, and rubbing it with oil and soot, he soon arrived at the method of taking off what he had engraved on his silver; and at last, by moistening his paper, and the addition of a roller, he succeeded in such a manner that his figures not only appeared as if they had been printed, but even drawn by the hand. This discovery produced us engraved prints, by which the pictures of the first masters became accessible to the public, and it has been gradually improving. Finiguerra had not the meanness to be jealous of his art, or make a mystery of his experiment, and he had no sooner communicated them than Baccio Baldini and Antonio Pollajuoli contrived to imitate, and even improve on them. They were not the masters, however, who were the most celebrated in the art, and this honour was not reserved for Tuscany.

' Vafari has been principally followed in what has been said on the subject of the invention of copper-plates, or prints, and his opinion has been since confirmed by Filippo Baldinucci, in his *Lives of the Painters*, and the senator Buonarroti, in the preface to his "*Observations on the Medals of Cardinal Carpegna's Cabinet*." This origin of prints was not indeed disputed till monsieur Mariette, a learned modern connoisseur, thought proper to throw some doubts on it.—His Pyrrhonism rests on negative presumption.—Not a single print, he asserts, has been produced, after the most minute inquiries and laborious researches, with either the

name or cypher of Maso, though there have been a few of Polajuoli and Botticelli. There is not one in the magnificent collection of the late prince Eugene, that monsieur Mariette classed in person, nor in the cabinet of the late French king, one of the most complete in Europe, and richer than any other in prints of the first or earliest masters. The chevalier Gaburri has likewise carefully examined every collection at Florence with the same ill success. An ancient engraving has been only found of the combat of Hercules with the Lernæan hydra, at the bottom of which there are the letters I. F. S. which, read from right to left, may signify "Thomas Finiguerra incidit," but when there is a bare possibility, all argument can be only founded on conjecture.

‘ An old edition of Dante, printed by Nicola della Magna, is full of prints, and they have been suspected to have been Finiguerra’s; though if they had been engraved by the obscure process described by Vasari, they would have been much more coarse and ordinary. Exclusive of this circumstance, Vasari attributes these prints to Sandro Botticelli, and according to the chevalier Gaburri, on a view of the picture of this master at the Annunciation at Florence, the resemblance is so very striking as to identify the artist. The learned abbé Antonio Maria Salvini assures his readers there is another edition of Dante, which has its margin filled with prints, and the chevalier Gaburri believes he is in possession of a few of its leaves. "The figures," he observes, "without a name, without a cypher, and without a date, are as bad and coarse as it is possible for them to be, and they appear to have been struck off in the infancy of the art; from which circumstance Maso Finiguerra may probably have been the author. Yet this must be still conjecture." One observation may be made, that the names of the artists began but to be introduced when the art was multiplied and the masters numerous. Whilst there was only a single artist of the kind, without a rival or a predecessor, it was not necessary to authenticate his works either by his name or cypher. The French connoisseur also, though he has doubted of Finiguerra’s invention, has not mentioned any other person that has a right to the honour, and speaks only in a vague manner of some German prints of an earlier date than any he had seen in Italy.—If Maso Finiguerra is not however to be allowed to have invented copper-plates, he was an excellent goldsmith and engraver in the time of Lorenzo de’ Medici, and in the Florentine gallery a great collection of his designs may yet be seen.’ Vol. i. p. 373.

Though we have already given copious extracts from this work, we cannot forbear transcribing part of the author’s masterly sketch of the character of Catharine de’ Medici.

‘ During the thirty years she governed France, like the treacherous female of Archilochus, who held a pitcher of water in one hand and a fire-brand in the other, she created public dissensions,

and appeased them as often as she pleased. Her remedies, however, were sometimes only perfidious palliatives, which in the end increased the fever, and aggravated the inflammation. Her ambition was of the most flagitious species—peaceable authority was beneath her notice—she had tranquillity in horror—storms and tempests were the first pleasures of her life—and if Providence had given her a world to govern, she would soon have reduced it to a chaos.

‘ There is not probably a contrast more striking than the picture traced by a Florentine poet of the happiness of the French monarchy under Francis the Ist, and its deplorable state, if not its total subversion, under Catherine’s administration.

‘ Notwithstanding Catherine’s infernal resolution, attentive eyes have not failed to perceive sometimes a tremulous vibration in her conduct.—It was not uniform.—At some moments she boldly crowded all her sails, and stretched out to a vast distance on the ocean—at others she steered for land with equal and astonishing rapidity.—Her steps like those of the tigress, bathed in blood, were quick and sudden, and she moved with starts and bounds.—Blood she often spilt from passion and revenge, but oftener from the severity of her atrocious system, in which she considered cruelty to be necessary.—Undoubtedly she saw the blood stream from the executioner with unconcern and insensibility, but to suppose she found an amusement in it is to substitute a figure of rhetoric for truth.—A character of this horrid kind is not indeed ideal, yet, for the honour of humanity it has been very rare, and only one execrable assassin has existed, the diabolical Rafiat, who asked his judges with a malignant grin, “ if they were not ignorant of the pleasure of seeing the convulsed eye of a dying person.”

‘ As Catherine’s barbarity was founded on principle, and her perverted understanding approved of the ferocity of her heart, she did not forget to transmit, as far as she was able, the same impression to her children.—Nothing, perhaps, discovers more clearly the blackness of her soul than the education which she gave them.—Battles of animals of various kinds, in which they tore each other to pieces, were their favourite recreations, and she attended in person with them at the private torture and public execution of criminals.—What the bloody amusement of her savage theatre had given them a taste for, the spectacles at the Grève completely finished.—These abominable seeds fructified particularly with Charles the IXth. The lessons and examples that had been given him entirely depraved the energetic but equivocal disposition he had received from nature, and his education rendered him nearly as cruel and ferocious as his mother.—Papire Masson relates that one of his greatest pleasures was to knock down pigs and asses, and that one of his courtiers, surprising him engaged sword in hand with his own mule, very gravely asked him “ what had happened between his most Christian majesty and his mule?” Vol. ii. p. 316.

The prominent features of the second volume are, the account of Leo X.—the sketch of the origin and progress of the reformation,—anecdotes of Machiavel, of Michael Angelo, or (according to the modern orthography) Michelagnolo, and Guicciardini,—and memoirs of Catharine de' Medici. The last-mentioned part of the volume nearly assumes the form of a well-connected history of the sway of Catharine. The anecdotes of Michelagnolo, also, which are collected chiefly from Vasari and Condivi, will be read with pleasure, as well as the catalogue and judicious estimate of his different pictures, and other productions. The progress of poetry in Italy is traced with accuracy; and, in examining the merits of various writers, M. Tenhove has in general displayed the taste and judgment of a sound, impartial critic.

For reasons that have been candidly stated by sir Richard Clayton, these memoirs cannot be expected to have that regular, well-digested form, which is desirable, and which they would, perhaps, have had, if the author had lived to complete his design. Sometimes an article is dropped, and then resumed. The thread of historical narration is sometimes unnecessarily broken; and biographical anecdotes, as well as critical remarks, might, in a few places, have been better arranged. On some occasions, also, M. Tenhove has been too diffuse (particularly on Ficino and his commentaries); and, on others, reasonable curiosity is not fully gratified. We do not scruple, however, to recommend these memoirs to the notice of the public, as containing a valuable treasure of historical, critical, and biographical learning.

Of the translation it may be said, that the style is not contemptible, and that it has few Gallicisms, inversions of phrase, or other peculiarities, indicative of the source from which it flows. The few notes which sir Richard Clayton has added are judicious, and are offered with that candour which distinguishes a gentleman and a scholar; and he has made a proper use of Mr. Roscoe's late valuable work, without borrowing too freely, or subjecting himself to the imputation of plagiarism.

There are several vignettes and heads of illustrious men, which, from their inferior merit as engravings, can scarcely be deemed ornaments. A copious index is added, and we wish that a running chronology had accompanied the work. It would have given precision to the text, and is always of considerable assistance to the memory. Sir Richard also, we think, should have translated every original document and quotation which he has introduced into the text, in common justice to the English reader.



ΑΡΙΣΤΟΤΕΛΟΥΣ ΠΕΠΛΟΣ, *five Aristotelis Epitaphia in Heroas Homericos: Fragmentum ab H. Stephano primum editum, nunc pluribus auctum Epitaphiis, partim nuper editis, partim nunc primum à Codice Harleiano.* 12mo. 1s. 6d. White. 1798.

THIS is a republication of Aristotle's Peplus, enriched with the additional embroidery of three unpublished inscriptions from a MS. in the Harleian collection, by that excellent Greek scholar Thomas Burgess, prebendary of Durham, from whose pen we have an elegant and appropriate dedication of the work to the celebrated Heyne. We observe with concern more typographical errors, corrected or uncorrected, than will readily be conceded either to dormant attention, or human infirmity, in so short a performance; but we were much gratified with the disuse of the Greek accents, of which none of the pedantic advocates and employers have ever yet been, or ever will be, able to point out the necessity or the utility. Referring the reader to the preface for a brief history of the Peplus, we proceed to make a few critical remarks, which, we trust, will not be unacceptable, either to the public, or to the ingenious and learned editor.

In the first epigram we observe Κηφισσῶ with a double *sigma*; but we regard a single *sigma* as preferable.

In the third epigram, instead of

Ενθαδὲ ΤΩΝ Λοκρῶν ἡγήτορα γαίᾳ κατέσχευ—,

a manuscript gives ΤΟΝ Λοκρῶν • which is unquestionably genuine, and should have been adopted in the text. The author's purpose required an emphatical designation of the hero himself, not of his countrymen.

In the sixth epigram, Ἀρετὰ and Ἀπατὰ should have been distinguished as *persons*: the third verse is deformed by an error of the press, very unpleasant in so beautiful a poem; and ὡς παρ' is a reading of better authority than οὐνεκ'. On ver. 4. Mr. Burgess says: 'Εμευ. Sic MS. Harl. Vulg. εμευ.' So Brunck indeed has given; but Stephanus and Brodæus, and perhaps other editors, have given εμευ.

In the eighth epigram, correspondence requires ἱερὴ • not ἱερα.

Ἀργεῖος Σθένελος Καππαηῖος ὦΔΕ τεθαπται  
Τυμβῶ.—Epig. ix.

This we consider as harsh and inelegant. We would therefore read

Ἀργεῖος Σθένελος ΚΑΠΠΑΗΟΣ ΤΩΔΕ τεθαπται  
ΤΤΜΒΩ, και —.

Ὀλβιος, ὦ Μενελαε, σὺ τ' ἀθανάτος καὶ ἀγήρωσ,  
Ὡ μακαρῶν νησοῖς —. Epig. xii.

This position of τ' is vicious, and unexampled in Greek authors, with intent to combine *αθανατος* and *αγῆρας*. We might write κ' *αθανατος*: but we prefer another method with a better punctuation:

ΟΛΒΙΟΣ, Ω ΜΕΝΕΛΑΕ· ΣΥ Δ' *αθανατος* και *αγῆρας* —,

or without a comma at *ολβιος*. On this occasion, we may restore a corrupted passage in Theocritus, idyll. xii. 18.

Εἰ γὰρ τὸτο, πατερ Κρονιδῆ, πελοὶ· εἰ γὰρ *αγῆρας*  
*Αθανατοί*—.

Read Κ' *αθανατοί*· for, as the words so distinguished are in Homer, and have been taken from him by many succeeding writers, so we presume no example of the phrase, without the intervention of the conjunction, can be produced.

The fourteenth epigram is thus erroneously exhibited:

Νεστορα των Πυλίων ἡγήτορα ἦδε θανοντα  
Γῆ κατεχει, βελη φερτατον ἡμιθεων.

The *των* seems to be a typographical oversight. The hiatus at the close of the fourth foot of the first verse, notwithstanding the aspirate that follows, we deem inadmissible. The reading also of Eustathius, in the second verse, appears far preferable to that which is here given. We will venture to propose this restoration of the distich as highly probable:

Νεστορα ΤΟΝ Πυλίων ἡγήτορα, ΤΗΔΕ θανοντα,  
Γῆ κατεχει, βελη φερτατον ἩΜΕΡΙΩΝ.

In the seventeenth epigram, both the early introduction and the unusual position of τ' — *Αρχος τ' Αμφιμαχος* — might have suggested to an editor a suspicion of corruption; especially as one manuscript furnishes a various reading, *αρχων*. There were *two* heroes of this name. Probably, therefore, we should read,

ΑΡΓΕΙΟΣ Αμφιμαχος —.

The shortening of a diphthong in a proper name, when a vowel follows, will form no objection in a poem of this kind.

The open vowel in the eighteenth epigram —

— — — δωμ' Αἶδαο εἶαν —

may possibly be excused by the proper name; but we by no means can believe this to be the true reading, and should prefer δωμ' ΑἶΔΕΩ ΕΒΑΤΗΝ· or δωμ' εἶαν ΑἶΔΕΩ, by a transposition.

The editor gives a most strange and forced interpretation of the second verse of the twenty-eighth epigram, to our great astonishment:

Ἥδ' ἱερα νησος Ποντίας ἀμφὶς ἐχει.

The meaning of *αμφις εχει* is simply that of *περιεχει*, *habet*, *continet*.

It is surprising that he should have overlooked a most conspicuous error in the thirtieth epigram. The verse should thus be written :

Ὅν κτανεν ΟΞΙΤΣ Ἀρης Ἑκτορος ἐν παλαμαῖς.

Apposite examples may be found in Homer ; and *ωνυς* and *εξυς* have been frequently confounded.

He has destroyed the effect of the thirty-ninth epigram by a vicious application of a comma in the former verse.

In the forty-eighth epigram, for *Πασιν απαγγελω*, propriety and ease of construction demand *ΠΑΣΙ Δ' απαγγελω*—.

*Καρες και Λυκιοι βασιλεις* —.

We with the editor had condescended to give us some information respecting these *Carian and Lycian* KINGS. Nothing is so plain and easy as the restoration of this verse :

*Καρες και Λυκιοι ΒΑΣΙΛΗ, Σαρπηδωνα διον*—.

H, as usual, became EI, by separation ; and attracted the first letter of the succeeding word.

*Κυπριδος Αινειαν τε και*—Epig. liii.

Mr. Burgess says, 'MS. Harl. *Αινειαν Κυπριδος και Αγχ*—Verborum mutavi ordinem metri gratiâ.' But the transposition is as unjustifiable as the reason which he assigns is ill-founded, Has he forgotten Theocritus, epig. xiii. 1. ?

Ἡ ΚΥΠΡΙΣ & πανδημος —.

The poet indubitably gave,

*Αινειαν, ΚΥΠΡΙΔΟΣ ΤΕ και Αγχιστ φιλον υιον*—.

We cannot applaud Mr. Burgess's efforts on the fifty-seventh epigram. In the second verse, out of the variations *Αιπυν εξαθρεις* — *αιπυν και εραθρησω* — *αθρησοντα* — he makes, by a very bold and unnecessary transposition, *Εισαθρεις αιπυν*. His first attempt, *Αιπυν εξαθρησον*, is much more modest and simple, but fails in a smooth construction. We would write, with trivial alteration,

*Αιπυν ἸΝ' ΕΙΣΑΘΡΗΣ τυμζον Αμαζονιδος*.

Upon the whole, as the original poems themselves are extremely insignificant, if we except only from this sentence the epitaph on Ajax, so this edition of them, all things considered, is not entitled to much applause ; and it cannot add even a single sprig to that ivy-wreath, with which the brow of Mr. Burgess is encircled. We heartily wish to see this very learned editor engaged in some work more worthy of his talents and

exertions; and are sorry that such abilities, seconded by such ample opportunities and so much leisure, should continue unoccupied by some laborious and important undertaking. Mr. Burgefs is not one of those unblest scholars, whose hours are engrossed by a conflict with every species of untoward circumstance; or whom experience has taught to feel, in the bitterness of anguish, the truth of Pindar's observation:

——— Φαντι δ' εμμεν  
Τετ' αναροτατον  
Καλα γνωσκοντ', αναγκη  
Εκτος εχειν ποδα.

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*Sermons, by Hugh Blair, D. D. F. R. S. Ed. &c. Vol. IV\*. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.*

THE character of Dr. Blair's sermons may, in some measure, be ascertained from the general approbation with which they have been received. The present volume will not detract from the reputation which he acquired by his former publications of the same kind. Always pleasing, the author insinuates himself into the affections of his readers; and, without labouring to flash conviction, and draw tears from the sinner by sublime flights or pathetic addresses, he contents himself with the calm and elegant description of manners, and with moral observations founded on the scriptures. This style of writing and preaching may, from the great authority of the writer, be injurious to the eloquence of the pulpit. A congregation will become fastidious; and the young divine, while he is forming his style on such a model, will endeavour to obtain the applause of his auditors, by well-turned periods, rather than by that sound doctrine, which, by being continually inculcated on them, may produce a due effect on their minds and behaviour.

Two styles of preaching now prevail, for each of which there are many respectable advocates. On the one hand, the peculiar doctrines of christianity are made the theme of every discourse, though a greater emphasis is laid on the terrors of a future life than on the appropriate character of God in the new dispensation, as a tender father and a God of love. The discourses of this class of preachers are filled with metaphysical distinctions concerning faith, predestination, grace, the trinity, the atonement, everlasting flames, &c. and, the moral virtues being comparatively disregarded, it seems to be the great aim of these divines to make their hearers good disputants upon the most intricate points of theology. Eager to avoid this mode of preaching, other ecclesiastics run into the contrary extreme; and employ themselves almost entirely in the eluci-

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\* See CRIT. N. V. Vol. XLIV. p. 102; Vol. XLIX. p. 275; and Vol. LXX. p. 493.

dation of morality. Their sermons, therefore, for the most part, are as well calculated for the disciples of Confucius, or the admirers of heathen ethics, as for the votaries of christianity. In this island, the two classes to which we allude may in general be distinguished by the church to which they belong. In the latter class are the members in general of the established churches of England and Scotland, though lately in England many of the clergy, who arrogate to themselves the title of evangelical preachers, adopt the principles and the style of preaching of the former class. To the first-mentioned class belong two great bodies in both parts of the island: in England they are called Methodists, in Scotland Seceders; and an accurate observer of human nature will perceive at once, that such a schism is the inevitable effect of an established church.

The preachers of the establishment, secure in the possession of certain emoluments, look for advancement, not to the people, but to the superior orders of the state; and those doctrines and that style which might make them highly acceptable to the people, would diminish their estimation among the higher ranks. To be a popular preacher, will seldom lead to preferment; and, if it should, the popularity and zeal of the preacher rarely continue. It is not so with the divines of the other class. Their emoluments, their distinction, their elevation in society, depend on the increase of their congregations. They must rouse the sinking soul; they must appall the boldness of guilt; they must terrify the sinner on the first approaches of the enemy. The materials upon which they work not being of so fine a texture, they must use plain homely striking language; language, which all can understand, with sentiments which every man may appropriate to himself. Hence, the present discourses, to which the principal inhabitants of Edinburgh listened with rapture, would be entirely neglected at the chapel in Spa-fields, the tabernacle, or the meetings of the seceders.

It may be asked, whether there is not a possibility of uniting the advantages of both classes, and removing the inconveniences attendant on each. This purpose, we think, might be effected; and a great improvement in the knowledge and morals of Christians would be the consequence. Let the preacher of each attend occasionally the religious meetings of the other class: let him observe, what it is that fills the benches of one, and empties the pews of the other. Let not the one treat with contempt the popular preacher, nor let the evangelical despise entirely the moral discourses and elegant language of his brethren. Let both pay a greater attention to the scriptures; the one not confining himself to an explication of the difficulties in the writings of St. Paul, nor the other to au

illustration of the proverbs of the Jews, or of the moral sayings of our Saviour. The scripture is an immense field, out of which may be drawn every thing that is useful for sound knowledge: but every thing should have its turn; and perhaps a simple regulation of the last century might tend to invigorate the zeal of the members of the established church. The first James and Charles required, from the preachers in the universities, the disuse of written sermons: but they were, at length, again brought into use, and a consequent languor gradually gained possession of the church. If this regulation were again established; if no one should be permitted to carry his discourse in writing into the pulpit, and if encouragement were given at court to those who excel in extemporaneous preaching, the eloquence of the pulpit might be restored. A written discourse may amuse the head; but, to affect the heart, the preacher must speak from the heart.

To correct the failing into which the mere moral preachers, as they are called, are apt to fall, a very small degree of attention seems to be necessary. The heathens had their doctrine of another life as well as Christians: they were incited to virtue by the hopes of future reward; they were deterred from vice by the fear of future punishment. When a preacher therefore finds that every thing which he has advanced might have come equally well from a pagan priest, he may be assured that his discourse is defective, and that he has not given that zest to his precepts, which would have been derived from the scriptures. We might point out some instances in the volume before us, if we did not think that the same remark would occur to every reader; but we may here observe, that the preacher must not only attend to the whole of his discourse, to make it fully consistent with christianity; he must also select a text appropriate to the subject which he proposes to discuss. A remarkable failure in this respect occurs in the ninth sermon, in which the writer's topic is 'our present ignorance of the ways of God.' The scriptures have many sentences to this purport: but, by an improper choice, the preacher enfeebles the whole, and loses the opportunity of exciting his hearers to attain a virtue of far greater importance to them than mere knowledge.

'John xiii. 7. Jesus answered and said unto him, What I do, thou knowest not now; but thou shalt know hereafter.' p. 178.

The *hereafter* in this text was within a few minutes afterwards; the *hereafter* in the discourse refers to knowledge in future life. The precept of our Saviour in that part of the gospel, exemplified by his own practice, is highly important to Christians, though it is by the greater part strangely neglected. On this the preacher should have dwelt with energy;

and when we think of the love and condescension of our Saviour in this instance, the trite remarks in this discourse must appear languid and unimpressive.

As most of our readers may be supposed to be well acquainted with our author's style, we shall be the less anxious in the selection of our extracts. In an elegant discourse or essay on the inconsistency of human affairs, the following paragraph will strike those who have noted the changes within only the last twenty years.

' But to historical annals there is no occasion for our having recourse. Let any one, who has made some progress in life, recollect only what he has beheld passing before him, in his own time. We have seen our country rise triumphant among the nations; and we have seen it also humbled in its turn. We have seen in one hemisphere of the globe new dominions acquired, and, in another hemisphere, our old dominions lost. At home, we have seen factions and parties shift through all their different forms; and administrations, in succession, rise and fall. What were once the great themes of eager discussion, and political contest, are now forgotten. Fathers recount them to their children as the tales of other times. New actors have come forth on the stage of the world. New objects have attracted the attention, and new intrigues engaged the passions of men. New members fill the seats of justice; new ministers the temples of religion; and a new world, in short, in the course of a few years, has gradually and insensibly risen around us.' p. 256.

Having shown the inconstancy of some things, our author proceeds to show us three which are unchangeable,—virtue, God, heaven. The first topic he begins in the following manner :

' First, Virtue and goodness never change. Let opinions and manners, conditions and situations, in public and in private life, alter as they will, virtue is ever the same. It rests on the immovable basis of Eternal Truth. Among all the revolutions of human things it maintains its ground; ever possessing the veneration and esteem of mankind, and conferring on the heart, which enjoys it, satisfaction and peace. Consult the most remote antiquity. Look to the most savage nations of the earth. How wild, and how fluctuating soever the ideas of men may have been, this opinion you will find to have always prevailed, that probity, truth, and beneficence, form the honour and the excellency of man. In this, the philosopher and the savage, the warrior and the hermit, join. At this altar all have worshipped. Their offerings may have been unseemly. Their notions of virtue may have been rude, and occasionally tainted by ignorance and superstition; but the fundamental ideas of moral worth have ever remained the same.' p. 264.

This passage, we fear, will not stand the test of criticism. The honour and excellency of man have been very differently estimated in various ages, and by different nations; and, as it is true, that God seeth not as man seeth, so with God virtue is unchangeable; while with man it assumes a variety of appearances, which indicate the weakness of his nature.

But, if our author is not always accurate in his expressions, his sentiments are those of an enlarged mind. Thus he shows to us, in another discourse, that the fickle opinions, which different ages entertain of virtue, ought not to guide a man of religious principle.

‘The most excellent and honourable character which can adorn a man and a Christian,’ is acquired, by resisting the torrent of vice, and adhering to the cause of God and virtue against a corrupted multitude. It will be found to hold in general, that all those, who, in any of the great lines of life, have distinguished themselves for thinking profoundly, and acting nobly, have despised popular prejudices, and departed, in several things, from the common ways of the world. On no occasion is this more requisite for true honour, than where religion and morality are concerned. In times of prevailing licentiousness, to maintain unblemished virtue, and uncorrupted integrity; in a public or a private cause, to stand firm by what is fair and just, amidst discouragements and opposition; despising groundless censure and reproach; disdaining all compliance with public manners, when they are vicious and unlawful; and never ashamed of the punctual discharge of every duty towards God and man;—this is what shows true greatness of spirit, and will force approbation even from the degenerate multitude themselves. “This is the man,” their conscience will oblige them to acknowledge, “whom we are unable to bend to mean concessions. We see it in vain either to flatter or to threaten him; he rests on a principle within, which we cannot shake. To this man you may, on any occasion, safely commit your cause. He is incapable of betraying his trust, or deserting his friend, or denying his faith.” P. 414.

The essay on *ennui*, or weariness of life, may be read with advantage by the higher classes; yet, in some places, we cannot entirely agree with the writer.

Our ‘sympathy will be proportioned to the degree in which we consider them [the unfortunate] as free from blame in the misfortunes which they suffer. As far as, through their own misconduct and vice, they have been the authors to themselves of those misfortunes, we withdraw our pity. The burthen which they have brought on themselves we leave them to bear as they can; and with little concern we hear them exclaim that their *souls are weary of life*. Not only so, but even in cases where calamities have fallen on the innocent, to the pity which we feel for them will be joined a secret



contempt, if we perceive that together with their prosperity, their courage and fortitude have also forsaken them. To abandon themselves to dejection carries no mark of a great or a worthy mind. Instead of declaring that his *soul is weary of his life*, it becomes a brave and a good man, in the evil day, with firmness to maintain his post; to bear up against the storm; to have recourse to those advantages which, in the worst of times, are always left to integrity and virtue; and never to give up the hope that better days may yet arise.' P. 13.

The Christian sympathises with every object in distress: if sin has brought down his brother, his great aim is, like that of the Samaritan in the parable, to pour wine and oil on the festering wound.

In a work which has so few blemishes, it would be invidious to point out occasional Scoticisms, or small improprieties of diction. If we consider the volume as a collection of essays rather than of sermons, we must allow that it has great merit, and that it is worthy of an author who has been justly ranked with our most distinguished ethical writers.

*The Columbiad: an Epic Poem, on the Discovery of America and the West-Indies by Columbus. In Twelve Books. By the Rev. James L. Moore, Master of the Free Grammar School in Hertford, Herts. 8vo. 15s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1798.*

THE discoveries of Columbus, important as they have proved to mankind, do not form a proper subject for an epic poem. They want the unity which such a work requires. The great object is accomplished on the first discovery of land: the mutiny of Roldan, the rapacity of the Spaniards, and the ingratitude of the Spanish court, are interesting as historical facts; but nothing can be more unfit for heroic poetry. In the whole American history, the only event that could with propriety be so narrated is the conquest of Mexico; a subject which, in the hands of a Spaniard of sufficient genius, might be formed into a noble poem.

The Columbiad opens with the wreck of the admiral's vessel off the island of Hispaniola; a circumstance occasioned by the agency of the evil passions. The erection of a fort in that island, and the admiral's return to Europe, are the subjects of the first book. In the two following books, Columbus relates the history of his voyage to the king of Portugal. In the fourth, he goes to the Spanish court, and returns to Hispaniola. The settlement of the colony at Isabella occupies the fifth. The Almighty commands the angel Raphael to give Columbus a description of the new world, and an account of

governor Penn, general Wolfe, and the falls of Niagara : these instructions to the angel fill the sixth book. Columbus sets sail from Isabella to prosecute his discoveries ; he comes to the mouth of the Orinoco, where a spirit rises, and relates to him, in two long and dull books, the history of the American war. The insurrection of the Indians, the mutiny of Roldan and its suppression, and the return of Columbus to Spain, take up the remainder of the poem, which concludes with his giving a full account of his conduct to Ferdinand and Isabella, and receiving their approbation.

The story of Achæmenides is imitated in the fourth book. It is curious, that, in the *Conquista di Granata* of Gratiani, Columbus relates an episode borrowed from the same story. The Italian writer is the more absurd of the two ; the English one the more dull.

The spirit of the Orinoco was probably suggested to Mr. Moore by the genius of the cape in Camoens ; but there is no reason for his rising, no useful purpose answered or intended by his prophecy.

The long and heavy details of future events, introduced in this poem, reminded us of the Vision of Columbus. Here, however, they are unnecessarily introduced ; there they are the business of the work ; and, though Joel Barlow is not a great poet, yet, when compared with Mr. Moore, he rises into respectability.

It is of little import from what part we extract ; but we will give the following passage as a specimen.

‘ A plain there is of greatest length, and wide,  
Extending several miles from side to side ;  
Of open surface and of level site,  
And well adapted for the war by night ;  
Its name was Vega Real, here their stand  
And station took the native Indian band :  
Columbus seiz’d the moment to assail  
The foes, and of their ignorance avail ;  
The thund’ring engine spreads its dire alarms,  
And fire tremendous issues from their arms ;  
The Indians, fill’d with terror and dismay,  
To some safe refuge take their rapid way ;  
But ere they reach in flight the distant glade,  
Befriended by the night’s obscurest shade,  
The cavalry pursue with vehement force,  
And with impetuous swiftness stop their course ;  
The Spanish mastiffs, in their nature bold,  
And urg’d to fierceness seize with greedy hold,  
And pull the trembling victims to the ground,  
While mournful cries thro’ neighb’ring fields resound ;

Th' unnumber'd dead distress the feeling eyes;  
 The dying melt the heart with piteous sighs;  
 While crowds of pris'ners drag the captive chain,  
 And pour their vows their freedom to regain;  
 The few that under shelter of the night  
 To woods remote securely took their flight;  
 Oppress'd with grief, abandon'd to despair,  
 Beat their sad breasts, and raging tore their hair;  
 Unstrung their bows, their poison'd arrows broke,  
 And bent reluctant to the Spanish yoke.  
 The hatchet and the spear were thrown away,  
 Their martial ardour hasten'd to decay;  
 So unexpected rag'd the Spanish sword,  
 Such sudden vengeance on the Indians pour'd;  
 Like the quick flash of light'ning through the sky  
 Darts and portends the brooding tempest nigh;  
 And oft begins the wide destroying storm,  
 Which soon unite, and nature's works deform:  
 Columbus, now triumphant o'er the plain,  
 Interr'd the bodies of the numerous slain;  
 The Indians thus dispers'd, no daring foes  
 Rise up rebellious, or his pow'r oppose;  
 With chosen troops he marches through the isle,  
 And sev'ral days surveys the various soil;  
 Frequents their towns, and to the Spanish sway  
 Subjects, and gives them orders to obey.' P. 357.

The author has sometimes made the first line of a couplet an Alexandrine; as,

'Alas! in undistinguish'd mass our comrades lie,  
 No frail memorial calls the passing sigh.' P. 149.

But it is unnecessary to point out trifling errors in a work so contemptible. We may add, that, besides being one of the dullest books we ever remember, it is, with little reason, one of the dearest.

*Zoonomia; or, the Laws of Organic Life. (Continued from Vol. XXII. p. 407.)*

IN the medical portion of this work, we do not perceive any particular traces of arrangement; for the order of the sections may be altered with little detriment to the general consistency, and they may rather be considered as detached physiological essays. We shall, however, follow the order of the writer.

The first subject is the circulatory system; and glandular

secretion follows. Dr. Darwin has given an enlarged definition of a gland, including every complicated organ which has an entrance, a cavity, and an excretory vessel; for which reasons the lacrymal sac, the stomach, &c. are styled and considered as glands. When he observes that an irritation of the nasal duct will produce tears, he seems not to be aware that they are occasioned only by the irritation being communicated along the membrane to the real gland, not by any action of its own; for neither is the blood brought to the lacrymal sac, nor is the change from blood to tears elaborated in it. Secretion is performed by what he terms glandular appetency, or the agreeable sensation attendant on the approach of some particles which are attracted, while different kinds are repelled. If the fact had been mentioned, that the smaller vessels of the body are occasionally stimulated by fluids or substances which have no influence on other vessels, it might have been easily supported; but to raise an archæus in every vessel, to distinguish and admit, or reject, is at best hypothetical, and an hypothesis of no advantageous tendency.

When he speaks of inflammation, he affirms that a torpor precedes. This is not generally true, but can be admitted only of those internal inflammations, which arise from general disease, particularly gout. The affection of the stomach, which precedes gout, may certainly in some degree be styled torpor; but this term is too general, and otherwise appropriated.

In the whole section relating to the stomach and intestines, our author dwells more on the inversion of the lacteals and biliary ducts, than on their more common or obvious functions. When the eyes become yellow, for instance, from a fright, or other causes, the motions of those ducts are supposed to be inverted; yet there is no evidence of any thing but a superabundant secretion; for, in fact, the bile is not only visible in the eyes, but copiously in the stools. In extraordinary discharges by stool, we perceive not the slightest evidence of morbid change, unless the more complete evacuation of the bowels, and the increased action of the mucous glands and exhalant arteries, be considered as such; for these will explain every appearance.

On the capillary glands and membranes, much useful information is sacrificed to what appears to us an attempt to step out of the common way; and, as we have made this remark, we shall anticipate a few pages for a striking instance.

‘ There is a species of the atrophy, which has not been well understood; when the absorbent vessels of the stomach and intestines have been long inured to the stimulus of too much spirituous

liquor, they at length, either by the too sudden omission of fermented or spirituous potation, or from the gradual decay of nature, become in a certain degree paralytic; now it is observed in the larger muscles of the body, when one side is paralytic, the other is more frequently in motion, owing to the less expenditure of sensorial power in the paralytic limbs; so in this case the other part of the absorbent system acts with greater force, or with greater perseverance, in consequence of the paralysis of the lacteals; and the body becomes greatly emaciated in a small time.

‘I have seen several patients in this disease, of which the following are the circumstances. 1. They were men about fifty years of age, and had lived freely in respect to fermented liquors. 2. They lost their appetite to animal food. 3. They became suddenly emaciated to a great degree. 4. Their skins were dry and rough. 5. They coughed and expectorated with difficulty a viscid phlegm. 6. The membrane of the tongue was dry and red, and liable to become ulcerous.’ Vol. i. p. 301.

A less active mind might more readily attribute the emaciation to the destruction of the tone of the stomach, which prevents the proper assimilation; and a less ingenious one would probably look no farther for all these changes, than the debility and want of irritability arising from a former stimulus, which is either discontinued, or has lost its power from habit.

In his view of hæmorrhages and petechiæ, Dr. Darwin particularly rests on the want of venous absorption; yet, in all the cases adduced, there is a manifest tenuity of the blood; and a more obvious cause exists, viz. the escape of blood from the capillaries that did not usually allow the passage of the red globules.

Most of the cases derived from a paralysis of the absorbents are, we think, more easily explicable in the usual way. The doctrine of the retrograde motion of the fluids in the absorbents, occurred to our notice in the 49th volume of our Review; and we then considered it as ingenious. On full reflection, we can add no farther praise; and to admit it would destroy the regular theory of the absorbent system, by weakening its great support, viz. the final cause of its numerous glands.

The temperaments that, in our author’s opinion, produce disease, are, 1. Those of decreased irritability; 2. Of sensibility; 3. Of increased voluntariness; 4. Of increased association. These distinctions seem to us to be arbitrary; and they are not of sufficient moment to detain us.

Irritative fevers are the next subject of discussion; and they are explained in general with great precision. In the cold fit of fever, the external arteries are quiescent from de-

fiency of heat ; and Dr. Darwin thinks that the quiescence is communicated by association to internal capillaries, particularly those of the lungs and intestines. He explains the action of the cold bath and cold air in the same way. Perhaps they are not perfectly similar, as a cold fit of fever is attended with a slow belly, while cold air and sometimes cold aspersions have an opposite tendency. Besides, the watery diarrhoea, and the flow of limpid urine, seem to be more connected with increased action of these internal vessels, than with quiescence. The heat, subsequent to the cold fit, is, as may be supposed, attributed to the accumulation of sensorial power ; and the writer concludes, that ' fever fits are not an effort of nature to relieve herself,' and that the ' supernatural power of spasm' is not necessary to explain their circumstances.

Diseases of sensation are those in which the painful or pleasurable sensations, carried to excess, produce a deviation from health. The febrile diseases of this kind are fevers with topical inflammation, or the more malignant typhi, attended with putrid ulceration. In reality, they are the irritative fevers joined with topical affections. The delirium is not very satisfactorily explained, the effect of fever on the mental functions being unnoticed ; and the idea of epidemic and contagious diseases depending on disagreeable sensations, on which account brutes are exempted from them, is too ludicrous for examination.

In treating of diseases of volition, the author systematises an idea, which we saw with a suspicious eye in its germ, viz. that motions excited by desire and aversion are voluntary, though no action of the mind interpose, and though in some instances they may be contrary to the will, and uncontrollable by its power. If no farther consequence were to be drawn, we should only censure this as a source of some confusion ; but if it be designed to bring the human frame to a mere machine, and render its actions the necessary effects of the different causes, our author's conduct is more reprehensible. We see, indeed, a strong tendency to this conclusion in many parts ; but, on the whole, we think that the attempt carries its own antidote ; for, if mind be not exerted in volition, some similar distinguishing and active power must reside in the vessels, capable of feeling desire and aversion, and acting, in consequence, often with final views.

From the present pathological discussion, it is difficult to distinguish what complaints are meant to be included under the title of Diseases of Volition. It is a point much insisted on, that bodily exertions of any kind, if violent and active, relieve pain for a time. That they call off attention, in some degree, is true ; but that to relieve pain is the final cause,

there is much reason to doubt;—to clench the teeth, to raise the shoulders, to compress the chest, are, in many instances, not exertions to relieve pain, but merely to fix the bones, from which other muscles rise, or into which they are inserted. The rigor of fever, though confessedly the consequence of some re-action of the system, does not relieve the pain of coldness: on the contrary, the violent agitation of the muscles is more painful than actual cold. The screams and contortions of those who are in pain do not seem to mitigate it; for those who bear pain most firmly, never groan: the sturdy villain on the rack, the North-American savage in the midst of his tortures, scarcely ever utter a complaint or move a muscle.

In convulsions, quiescence succeeds the action; and it does so probably from the constriction of the organ, or the laws of its power; but the principle is carried too far, when the palsy from diseased liver is considered as quiescence consequent on the previous disagreeable irritation. If this were the case, palsy should happen from disagreeable irritations of other kinds, and more certainly from violent pains. Strong convulsions seldom produce palsy; and, though agitations sometimes precede the last disease, they appear to be the beginnings and slighter degrees of it. A similar effect (it is observed) is produced by violent mental exertions: thus madness, which is considered as volition unmixed with sensation, sometimes alternates with convulsions. Various modes of mental exertion to relieve pain are enumerated; and they are illustrated by some uncommon cases.

The diseases of association are afterwards considered. In the associated trains, the energy, in all, may be greater or less than natural; or the former and latter parts of the train may differ in energy. Both parts of the train are exerted with greater energy than natural, when the action of the stomach in digestion excites that of the extreme vessels of the face—with unequal energy, when the increased action of the former consumes the sensorial power, and leaves the body chilly; or when, on the contrary, a nausea of the stomach, which is considered as diminished action, excites that of the absorbents—with diminished energy, when dyspnoea is excited, by going into a cold bath.

The section which follows is on the periods of diseases. The regular series of motions in the human system, so far as they are connected with the solar or lunar periods, are accurately detailed. But the explanation, from the solar and lunar influence, is doubtful. Indeed the introduction of these terms may probably bring the whole series of observations into dispute: one very obvious remark will perhaps be sufficient on this occasion. We find always an evening ex-

perbation, and a morning solution: we find, less distinctly, another exacerbation about ten in the forenoon, and a solution about one or two in the afternoon. This we observe in all climates, and at all seasons. We may therefore, perhaps, more safely attribute these changes to an established law of the system, than to external influences, which might equally operate on an inanimate machine.

Digestion, secretion, and nutrition, are ascribed to animal appetency for fluids suitable to the constitution; and digestion, in Dr. Darwin's opinion, cannot be imitated out of the body, because in the stomach the chyle is absorbed, as soon as formed, without having time to be changed by a chemical process. This, however, is contradicted by almost every fact relating to digestion. Sudden fear will immediately produce acid in the stomach; and the suppression of the biliary discharge, which is not poured into the stomach, will prevent the formation of chyle. In fact, chyle is not formed in the stomach, and is not immediately absorbed. It was with some surprise that we found the author not aware of a peculiar organic structure of the absorbing extremities of lacteals, demonstrated by Liberkuhn; and we thought it equally remarkable, that he should consider the thickening of animal hides by oak bark, as analogous to nutrition, since it is generally known that the leather loses in extent of surface what it gains in thickness.

Old age, Dr. Darwin thinks, consists in a want of excitability; but he does not add to the account, the lightness of the bones, the diminution of the cartilages, the decaying arteries, and the enlarged veins: all concur to bring us within a limited time to the grave.

In the section on the Oxygenation of the Blood, he argues, that the placenta is a respiratory organ, oxygenating the blood of the fœtus by the contact of the maternal blood. But we see no occasion for such a circuitous operation. If the blood, contained in the arteries and veins of the mother, passes to the fœtus, either by continuous vessels or by absorption, this blood must be oxygenated in her lungs; and we know that the blood of a pregnant woman is hyper-oxygenated, probably to answer this purpose in a more extended circulation. That the fœtus is nourished by the mouth from the liquor amnii, is a crude idea of the last century; and it would have been better to have examined the judicious arguments of the elder Monro, in opposition to this system, than to have repeated the idle stories of Vanderwiël, and of the column of ice in the gullet of the frozen fœtus. It may be properly asked, was the ice formed during the life or after the death of the fœtus? If after death, the fact is inapplicable: if during life, it will not be easy to show how the tender fœtus could



have borne the degree of cold necessary to the congelation. Other facts relative to the egg are also inaccurately stated ; and consequences are drawn, which the real circumstances will not admit. Our author thinks that some ætherial fluid is absorbed with the air, and again secreted by the brain, to become the medium of sensation and the source of activity.

The next section is on generation. Dr. Darwin considers the embryo as a bud, an elongation of the parent, with powers, faculties, aversions, and desires, peculiarly its own, though resembling in some degree (often very strikingly) those of the parent. This living filament is, in his opinion, derived from the father ; and he illustrates it by various analogies of vegetable and of some animal productions. His system we shall select from different pages, omitting some of his illustrations.

‘ I conceive the primordium, or rudiment of the embryo, as secreted from the blood of the parent, to consist of a simple living filament as a muscular fibre ; which I suppose to be an extremity of a nerve of loco-motion, as a fibre of the retina is an extremity of a nerve of sensation ; as for instance one of the fibrils, which compose the mouth of an absorbent vessel ; I suppose this living filament, of whatever form it may be, whether sphere, cube, or cylinder, to be endued with the capability of being excited into action by certain kinds of stimulus. By the stimulus of the surrounding fluid, in which it is received from the male, it may bend into a ring ; and thus form the beginning of a tube. Such moving filaments, and such rings, are described by those, who have attended to microscopic animalcula. This living ring may now embrace or absorb a nutritive particle of the fluid, in which it swims ; and by drawing it into its pores, or joining it by compression to its extremities, may increase its own length or crassitude ; and by degrees the living ring may become a living tube.’  
Vol. i. p. 496.

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‘ With every new change of organic form, or addition of organic parts, I suppose a new kind of irritability or of sensibility to be produced ; such varieties of irritability or of sensibility exist in our adult state in the glands ; every one of which is furnished with an irritability, or a taste, or appetency, and a consequent mode of action peculiar to itself.

‘ In this manner I conceive the vessels of the jaws to produce those of the teeth, those of the fingers to produce the nails, those of the skin to produce the hair ; in the same manner as afterwards about the age of puberty the beard and other great changes in the form of the body, and disposition of the mind, are produced in consequence of the new secretion of semen ; for if the animal is deprived of this secretion those changes do not take place. These changes I conceive to be formed not by elongation or distention of

primeval stamina, but by apposition of parts; as the mature crab-fish, when deprived of a limb, in a certain space of time has power to regenerate it; and the tadpole puts forth its feet long after its exclusion from the spawn; and the caterpillar in changing into a butterfly acquires a new form, with new powers, new sensations, and new desires.' Vol. i. p. 497.

'What most of all distinguishes these new animals is, that they are new furnished with the powers of reproduction; and that they now differ from each other in sex, which does not appear in their caterpillar or grub state. In some of them the change from a caterpillar into a butterfly or moth seems to be accomplished for the sole purpose of their propagation; since they immediately die after this is finished, and take no food in the interim, as the silkworm in this climate; though it is possible, it might take honey as food, if it was presented to it. For in general it would seem, that food of a more stimulating kind, the honey of vegetables instead of their leaves, was necessary for the purpose of the seminal reproduction of these animals, exactly similar to what happens in vegetables; in these the juices of the earth are sufficient for their purpose of reproduction by buds or bulbs; in which the new plant seems to be formed by irritative motions, like the growth of their other parts, as their leaves or roots; but for the purpose of seminal or amatorial reproduction, where sensation is required, a more stimulating food becomes necessary for the anther, and stigma; and this food is honey.

'The gnat and the tadpole resemble each other in their change from natant animals with gills into aerial animals with lungs; and in their change of the element in which they live; and probably of the food, with which they are supported; and lastly, with their acquiring in their new state the difference of sex, and the organs of seminal or amatorial reproduction. While the polypus, who is their companion in their former state of life, not being allowed to change his form and element, can only propagate like vegetable buds by the same kind of irritative motions, which produces the growth of his own body, without the seminal or amatorial propagation, which requires sensation; and which in gnats and tadpoles seems to require a change both of food and of respiration.

'From hence I conclude, that with the acquisition of new parts, new sensations, and new desires, as well as new powers, are produced; and this by accretion to the old ones, and not by distention of them. And finally, that the most essential parts of the system, as the brain for the purpose of distributing the power of life, and the placenta for the purpose of oxygenating the blood, and the additional absorbent vessels for the purpose of acquiring aliment, are first formed by the irritations above mentioned, and by the pleasurable sensations attending those irritations, and by the exertions in consequence of painful sensations, similar to those of hunger and suffocation. After these an apparatus of limbs for

future uses, or for the purpose of moving the body in its present natant state, and of lungs for future respiration, and of testes for future reproduction, are formed by the irritations and sensations, and consequent exertions of the parts previously existing, and to which the new parts are to be attached. Vol. i. p. 498.

From these simple principles, Dr. Darwin traces all the varieties of animated beings; showing, from their different situation, their different wants and modes of life, how all the varieties in question may be produced; and the whole of this theory is well compacted, and detailed in a comprehensive and masterly manner. It fails, however, in point of fact, for the internal structure differs as much as the form; the bones, the distribution of the vessels and nerves of each species are peculiarly their own, and these cannot be influenced by different habits or modes of life. When he has so professedly guarded against the imputation of materialism, it would be unfair to charge him with it: yet we think the whole at a very short distance only from this pernicious system; and ingenuity, much less than his own, might add the remaining step. If we only admit, for a moment, the desires and aversions of this living filament, little is necessary for the superstructure.

The subject is pursued in many of its varieties; but we have not sufficient space for the detail. Indeed, in the whole, we observe too much imagination, and too little science or observation. Many facts, which materially oppose the author's system, should have been noticed and obviated; and various arguments should have been adduced, independent of the possibility of the process or the plausibility of the theory.

(To be continued.)

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*The State of the Poor: or, an History of the Labouring Classes in England, from the Conquest to the present Period; in which are particularly considered, their Domestic Economy, with respect to Diet, Dress, Fuel, and Habitation; and the various Plans which, from Time to Time, have been proposed, and adopted, for the Relief of the Poor: together with Parochial Reports relative to the Administration of Work-houses, and Houses of Industry; the State of Friendly Societies; and other Public Institutions; in several Agricultural, Commercial, and Manufacturing, Districts. With a large Appendix; containing a comparative and chronological Table of the Prices of Labour, of Provisions, and of other Commodities; an Account of the Poor in Scotland; and many original Documents on Subjects of national Importance. By Sir Frederic Morton Eden, Bart. 3 Vols. 4to. 3l. 3s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.*

THIS is a very important and valuable work. The extent of its utility will not be immediately known; but, from

the statements which it contains, the next generation will see in a true light all the effects of bad policy. The history of a whole nation chiefly presents some general outlines; or, when it enters into particulars, it exhibits the splendid vices of the worst part of the community, or the outrages committed on humanity by the bloody and merciless spirit of war. A good account of the lower classes of society, in different ages, is still a *desideratum*. From their progress in comfort, civilization, and knowledge, we may easily form an idea of the state of the higher orders: but, if the great mass of a community be overwhelmed with poverty, wretchedness, and ignorance, we may be assured, that some few of the higher classes will present the appearance (more disgusting to a humane mind) of pride, effeminacy, luxury, and avarice. Nature has prescribed these limits to civil institutions. Where the good of the majority of the people is studied, there will be the greatest portion of happiness, that a country can enjoy. The great may not have, to such an extent, the ideal comforts of life; but they will enjoy every thing which a rational being can desire. They will not so easily bring together a number of idle and dissipated persons, to create bad air in elegant apartments; but their tables will be well spread, their houses well furnished, their country-seats embellished; and they will see around them a people strong to labour, enjoying homely yet wholesome fare, and occupying cleanly well-aired habitations.

We are happy to see (and we flatter ourselves, that it is a preface of better views of government) that the state of the poor occupies so much of the public attention. The foundation of a building requires considerable care from the architect; or the fall of his most splendid ornaments will cover him with disgrace. In most governments, this consideration was overlooked; and the interests of the lower classes were grossly neglected. Christianity gave rise to a better system; but all the benefits which it is capable of introducing into a country have not yet appeared.

Such publications as the present prepare the public mind for the reception of salutary truths: they will teach a nation, in what its true happiness and glory consist; they will show how far distant possessions and extensive commerce ought to be encouraged; and they will plainly intimate, that, if during any period the comforts of the poor have been declining, while those of the rich have been advancing far beyond the proper bounds, neither the supposed glory nor increasing riches of the country can atone for the badness of its policy. The information and advice which may be found in these volumes, will, we hope, arrest the progress of the growing evil: but, if a similar system should be pursued for a few ge-

nerations more, it is to be apprehended, that the sources even of luxury will be dried up, and that the whole community, rich and poor, will fall a sacrifice to that inordinate love of wealth, which will ever be ruinous to a nation.

The accommodations of the poor of this country seem to have been progressive from the conquest to some time beyond the middle of the present century. Their situation then arrived at its acmè; and it has since been rapidly declining. The circumstances by which we are to judge must be their lodging, food, and clothing. Before that period, they frequently procured meat and beer; but, in the cottage, meat has in general disappeared, and beer has given place to tea. Beer, the wholesome strengthening drink of the country, the poor can no longer afford to make at home; and a resort to the ale-house would soon ruin their œconomy.

The uncomfortable state to which the indigent are thus reduced, is a proper object of legislative redress. In the Preface, our author explains to us the nature of his undertaking. He was at the trouble of visiting a number of parishes; to others he sent a list of questions, by the answers to which he could judge of the state of each parish. His inquiries related to the extent and population of each district, the prices of provision and labour, the rent of land, the sects of religion, tithes, large and small farms, articles of cultivation, commons and waste lands, benefit clubs or friendly societies, diet of labourers, their earnings, expenses, &c. In speaking of his work, he very modestly places himself in a class far below his real merit.

‘The edifice of political knowledge cannot be reared without its “hewers of stone,” and “drawers of water.” I am content to work among them; and, whilst others prefer, (and there never will be wanting many who will prefer) the more arduous task of architectural decoration, to assist in digging the foundation, or in dragging the rough block from the quarry. The glory of the builder may be more enviable; but the drudgery of the mason is practically more useful. The one may embellish the fabric, but without the labours of the other, it would never be reared at all. The industry of the peasant, and the ingenuity of the manufacturer, are the brick and mortar of the political structure; the raw materials, which the statesman must work with. He will always do well to recollect, that the “jutting frieze,” and the “Corinthian capital,” generally owe their strength and solidity to the solid brick-work behind them.’ Vol. i. p. xxix.

His queries respecting the benefit of commons to the poor were not properly answered by his correspondents.

‘Of the little, however, that is said, the sum is, that the advantages which cottagers and poor people derive from commons and wastes, are rather apparent than real: instead of sticking regular-

ly to any such labour, as might enable them to purchase good fuel, they waste their time, either like the old woman in Otway's Orphan, in picking up a few dry sticks, or in grubbing up, on some bleak moor, a little furze, or heath. Their starved pig or two, together with a few wandering gossings, besides involving them in perpetual altercations with their neighbours, and almost driving and compelling them to become trespassers, are dearly paid for, by the care and time, and bought food, which are necessary to rear them. Add to this, that as commons, and wastes, however small their value may be in their present state, are undoubtedly the property, not of cottagers, but of the land-owners; these latter, by the present wretched system, are thus made to maintain their poor, in a way the most costly to themselves, and the least beneficial to the poor. There are thousands and thousands of acres in the kingdom, now the sorry pastures of geese, hogs, asses, half-grown horses, and half-starved cattle, which want but to be enclosed and taken care of, to be as rich, and as valuable, as any lands now in tillage. In whatever way, then, it may seem fit to the legislature, to make those cottagers some amends for the loss, or supposed loss, they may sustain, by the reclaiming of wastes, it must necessarily be better for them, than their present precarious, disputable, and expensive advantages, obtained, if at all, by an ill-judged connivance, or indulgence, of the owners of land; and, by an heedless sacrifice of property, of which no one takes any account, and for which, of course, no one thanks them.' Vol. i. p. xviii.

We may add, that common-rights are in general beneficial to the rich, rather than to the poor. A cottager has a common-right for a cow and a sheep: but, as he cannot purchase either, this right must be sold. We know an instance where a farmer with some capital obtains between fifty and eighty pounds a year by these rights. He purchases many of them from the cottagers; buys heifers in the spring; sends them on the common, where they are under the care of the herdsman; sells them at Michaelmas, and receives the profit of the common. When people talk of the value of commons to the poor, they do not consider the capital necessary before the poor can derive any benefit from them.

The history of the poor is traced from the conquest. In the first stage, there were slaves and villeins; consequently much wretchedness prevailed; but the state of the villein was meliorated before the death of Edward the First, though the little inventories of the furniture of the poor show, that their comforts, compared with those of the present time, were inconsiderable. Manufactures then became more common, and many villeins rose to the station of free labourers. In the reign of Edward the Third, their increasing importance rendered them the subjects of statutes, which give us an insight into the state of the poor during that reign. These acts fixed a maximum of

wages for the benefit of the master, rather than of the servant. They were soon found to be impracticable; and the endeavour to restrict the labourer in the disposition of his slender earnings showed only the ignorance of the legislature.

‘Nor are such regulations more impolitic than impracticable. To carry the statute respecting apparel into effect, it was enacted, that clothiers should make their cloth conformably to the prices appointed by the statute: however, it appears from a subsequent regulation of the legislature, that, not being allowed to raise their price, they had contrived to indemnify themselves by shortening the length of a piece of cloth; as the brewers of modern times, (who know that, if they raised the price of beer, one immediate consequence would be their being burthened with a very heavy additional excise,) in order to lessen their losses from the high price of malt, are obliged to lower the strength of their porter, in order to be able to sell as great a quantity for 3½d. as they did five years ago.’ Vol. i. p. 40.

When free labourers form a state in society, the consequence is, that there must be a body of poor, strictly so called, who from sickness or accident are rendered incapable of gaining their livelihood; and having now no lord to protect them, they must draw relief from other quarters. On this subject we have a judicious remark from our author.

‘Without the most distant idea of disparaging the numberless benefits derived to this country from manufactures and commerce, the result of this investigation seems to lead to this inevitable conclusion, that manufactures and commerce are the true parents of our national poor; and to justify the (by no means unreasonable, or captious) opinion of those, who think that it is particularly incumbent on persons engaged in manufactures, and commerce, to help to maintain them. To complain, however, that they have, by the inequality which industry must ever occasion, been the source of misery to some members of the community, is to complain of the causes which have raised us to an unexampled pitch of national prosperity, and of the consequences which are necessarily attached to it.’ Vol. i. p. 60.

Queen Elizabeth is supposed, by many, to have instituted our laws relative to the poor; but she only developed the ancient system. The statutes of Richard the Second and Henry the Fourth, for making a provision for this class of people, evidently led the way to her regulations. The writer traces the effects of the interference of the legislature on the wages of workmen; and, having shown the state of the poor to the reign of Henry the Eighth, he thus closes his first chapter.

‘Such were the laws enacted for the maintenance of the poor, the regulation of wages, and other matters immediately affecting the labouring classes, previous to the important era of the refor-

nation: they do not evince much knowledge of political economy in the legislature that formed them, and have not been found to be practicably useful in subsequent times; nor is even the information, which they convey, respecting the general progress of society, always to be depended on. A stranger to our history, who only perused the ancient statute for preventing enclosures, and limiting the wages of labour, would naturally infer, from the grievous complaints, so often reiterated by the commons, of scarcity, decay of husbandry, and depopulation, that, in the period between the reigns of the First Edward and Henry the Eighth, the nation had been gradually declining in wealth and prosperity. On the contrary, however, we have every reason to suppose, that, during the 14th and 15th centuries, the great mass of the people had made rapid advances in every branch of civilization. Many manufactures, formerly unknown, had been introduced, and established in the country. The cloathing arts alone, (which, by the patronage of the Third Edward, were generally extended throughout England,) would have produced a great improvement in social life, if unshackled by prohibition or monopoly: they are the most beneficial, because they are the most intimately connected with the agriculture of a country. While the consumption of meat necessarily encourages the breed of sheep, our farmers must feel the advantages of a manufacture which takes off a raw material, that would otherwise remain, in a great measure, useless: they cannot feed mutton without producing wool. It is from the sale of these two articles, that they must obtain a fair profit for rearing sheep; and, consequently, the less they get for the one, the more they must demand for the other. It is justly observed, that whatever regulations tend to sink the price either of wool or raw hides below what it naturally would be, must, in an improved and cultivated country, have some tendency to raise the price of butcher's meat. That the prohibition of exporting wool from England, and from Ireland except to England, has operated in this way, can, I think, admit of little doubt. Permission to import it from Spain, duty free, had probably the same effect, and offers an encouragement to the Spanish, at the expence of the English farmer. I have very little doubt, that one cause of the high price of provisions is the disadvantage which farmers lie under in disposing of their wool. While the manufactures are so thriving that they can take off all the wool produced in the kingdom, prohibition is unnecessary; for no other country can give better prices; but if the demand for meat is greater than that for wool, the farmer, if he increases his stock of sheep, must expect to have an unsaleable surplus of wool on his hands. If he proportions his stock of sheep to the demand for wool, he will not be able to supply the demand for mutton. If he could raise wool, like cotton, unconnected with any other production, he would proportion the quantity to the demand; but as this is out of his power, he is obliged to indemnify



nify himself for the reduced price of his superabundant wool, by augmenting the price of the eatable part of the carcase. It is said, that an increase in the price of wool would exclude our manufacturers from the foreign market; but if we could undersell the French in cottons, even while the island of Tobago was in their possession, and we were obliged to purchase the raw material from them, there seems to be less danger of a decline in our clothing trade, which is now almost, exclusively, carried on by this country: capital and skill, in this instance, as in others, would probably, even if the exportation of wool were permitted, enable the British trader to keep possession of the market.' Vol. i. p. 87.

The reformation was attended with various advantages, which, however, were almost balanced by some temporary inconveniences. The destruction of the monasteries injured for a time both the industry and other resources of the poor; but, when they had recovered from the first shock, their situation was gradually meliorated. We have in this period several instances of the folly of the legislature in its fears about the increase of London, and its statutes to prevent the building of houses within three miles of the capital.

The laws of Elizabeth, for the maintenance of the poor, were in some respects judicious. In the reign of her successor, the ill-judged plan of determining the wages for labour continued; and it was suspected, that the laws in question were a premium for idleness: but many salutary bills were enacted in this inglorious reign (as some improperly term it), for the better administration of justice, and the encouragement of manufactures and commerce; and the spirit of industry, during a long peace, took deep root in the kingdom. By the civil war of the next reign, these advantages were impaired; but the duration of the commonwealth was marked by augmented industry and trade, and increasing prosperity. Among the early acts of Charles II. that which laid the foundation for the law of settlements, now happily annulled, is the most important. Before that reign, the poor might go whither they pleased: but, by the new law, the overseers of a parish were empowered to remove them; and a single clause in this act, relative to settlements, has been productive of great emolument to the lawyers. The inconveniences of it were soon discovered; but a long time elapsed before the legislature returned to its senses, and restored the poor to their ancient privileges.—Mr. Firmin's plan for giving employment to the poor occupies much of our author's attention, and leads him, with the scheme of sir M. Hale, for employing them in the woollen manufacture, to the close of the second chapter.

The third period opens with a curious statement of the income and expense of families in England for the year 1688,

with observations by Dr. Davenant. Several plans for the better maintenance of the poor follow: that of Locke particularly deserves attention. A more important fact occurs in the reign of George the First, when houses on certain conditions were directed to be built for the poor. From this time, in different parts of the kingdom, many work-houses arose, the benefits of which are problematical. A quotation from Mandeville's *Fable of the Bees*, applicable to the establishment of charity-schools, is introduced, with a liberal note on the worth of that writer, whom it has been the fashion to decry; and his remarks are with great propriety recommended to the consideration of the advocates of Sunday schools. The plans of Mr. Hay, the earl of Hillborough, sir Richard Lloyd, Mr. Hanway, the dean of Gloucester, baron Maseres, lord Kaimes, Mr. Gilbert, Mr. Acland, Mr. Howlett, and sir W. Young, come successively under review, and respectively give occasion for just remarks. This part concludes with the mention of a plan to which our readers, we are persuaded, will readily accede.

‘ The legislators, who shall attempt the arduous task of reducing the contradictions of our poor laws, to one uniform system of national benevolence; who shall aim at administering relief to the indigent, in the way most congenial to the feelings of humanity; but, more especially, at superseding the necessity of parochial assistance, by rendering the accumulations of humble industry more secure and more productive; who shall endeavour to train the children of the labouring classes, by public instruction, to order and industry; and, in short, to introduce a reform, which shall itself contain the seeds of further improvement, and thus, efficiently, to promote the great ends of charity; will deserve well of their country. For, however unattainable the perfection, which they aim at, may be, the thorough revision of a complicated and corrupted code may, and probably will, have the good effect of stimulating active minds to investigate subjects of the highest importance, and of thus producing the most beneficial consequences to mankind. When the condition of the peasant and working manufacturer becomes a more general topic of enquiry, well ascertained facts will, whilst they level in the dust the plausible schemes of theoretical philanthropy, lead to innumerable discoveries, which, though unenforced by legal regulation, may prove acceptable, and useful to the great mass of the community.

‘ From the collision of practical research, many valuable truths, and many profound axioms of state policy, will be struck out. The country will learn too, from the adoption of measures which are directed to advance the comforts of domestic life, and social happiness, among the most numerous order in the state, that all the wisdom of the legislature is not derived from, nor directed to, the

custom-house, excise-office, or exchequer. Even if no new regulations should result from the plan which Mr. Pitt has already opened to parliament, the nation will be benefited by the acquisition of that useful knowledge which forms the basis of political science. The dissemination of truth will at once facilitate the operations, and promote the great ends, of government.' Vol. i. p. 409.

(To be continued.)

*Sermons preached to parochial Congregations, by the late Reverend Richard Southgate, B. A. &c. With a Biographical Preface, by George Gaskin, D. D. &c. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1798.*

OF these volumes the following account is given by the editor.

'They are the productions of a man, whose mind was well furnished and highly cultivated; whose learning was extensive and accurate, particularly in classics, history, and theology; whose principles were formed strictly upon the orthodox views of the church of England, whether we contemplate her primitive episcopal constitution, or her creed; whose high aim was to promote the glory of God, the knowledge of Christ crucified for the salvation of penitent sinners, and the spiritual edification of Christians; whose ministry was exercised with gravity, zeal, and perseverance; whose politics were such as the Bible inculcates, and the primitive Christians gloried in; whose temper was mild and amiable; and the tenor of whose life, adorned the doctrine of "God our Saviour." Vol. i. p. iv.

We take pleasure in subscribing to the greater part of what is here asserted of the respectable author of these discourses, whose reputation however, will not derive any addition from the work. It is difficult to ascertain the proper bounds of orthodoxy and politics; and, if a slight deviation from the former should occur in any of these sermons, we shall not be too rigid in our censures, since all men are liable to error; but we ought to express our strong disapprobation when temporary politics are mingled with religion. The failings in this respect are not very frequent in these discourses; and, when they do occur, there appears in general such an earnestness for the spiritual welfare of the hearers, that they are not to be put on the same level with the ordinary effusions of party preachers. In one case, however, the allusions are much too strong: they are calculated to draw the attention of the readers from a very important topic to the politics of the day, and must remind them of some improper expressions which were used in the last parliament by a member of the

house of commons. On the rejection of our Saviour for Barabbas by the Jews, we have this remark—

‘What a dreadful picture does this exhibit of human nature! that almost a whole city should unite in favouring a man who had been guilty of sedition, the greatest crime that a man can commit against a state,—and of murder, the greatest he can commit against individuals; and that this wretch should not only be preferred to a most just person, but be made the instrument of condemning him! This very circumstance shews what judgment we may form of the voice of the multitude: it shews us how dangerous are privileges abused, and that those privileges, which are most liable to be abused, should be granted with a sparing hand. The populace have ever been swayed more by noise and pretensions, than real virtue; at the best, fickle and inconstant, equally mistaken both in their applauses and their censures. Governors, therefore, should alway be steady in opposing the clamours of weak and malicious zealots. I am sorry that these reflections, arising from the subject, should not be foreign or unnecessary for the times in which we live; since, though the people cannot demand the release of a prisoner with clamour, as the Jews did that of Barabbas, yet the examples are too many, in which they are easily induced to range themselves under the influence of any unprincipled and artful leader, who works upon their prejudices and passions, inflamed by these to oppose both laws and magistrates; and when any popular criminal is acquitted, by whatever verdict, they too can shew what spirit they are of by their criminal acclamations.’ Vol. ii, p. 334.

The acclamations of the Jews would not have been criminal, if the delivery of their countryman to them had been an act of grace from the governor; nor should a preacher have gone out of his way to notice the acclamations of a multitude on the solemn acquittal of an accused person in our courts. The sin of the Jews consisted in calling out for the death of a person against whom no crime was alleged: but it is not the part of a Christian divine to impute sinister motives to those who display their joy when a countryman is restored to them, and freed from the apprehensions of an untimely end. We know not what instructions the editor had for the selection of these sermons; but we should have had a better opinion of his judgment, if, consistently with his duty, he had omitted the above-quoted passage, and such others as detract from the general spirit of benevolence, which prevails in the writings of his friend.

In the following passage, there is some degree of obscurity, which might without much difficulty have been removed by the editor, or explained in a note.

‘God is the father of Christ in a peculiar and eminent manner, from the communication of his divinity. He had a glory with the father before the world was, being himself “the brightness of

God's glory, and the express image of his person." He was in the form of God, and of the same essence with him; but the Father hath his essence from himself, the son by participation with the father. Here, then, is an identity of nature, and this relation is peculiar to Jesus Christ. God is the creator, and therefore the father of many glorious spirits, who stand about his throne. But "unto which of the angels said he at any time, Thou art my son, this day have I begotten thee?" So far are they from sharing the supreme glories of the Messiah, that they are ministering spirits not only to him, but to those whom he has redeemed. This relation received a peculiar lustre, when he ascended upon high, in the character of a mediator. Having finished his appointed work, his inward glory could no longer be obscured. But as he came forth from the father, and was come into the world, so now he was to leave the world, and go to the father.' Vol. ii. p. 369.

Is there not great danger, that, in attributing divine essence to the father in one way, and to the son by participation only in another, the unlearned may conceive that Christ is not eternal? The difficulty is not diminished as we proceed.

'To complete the glorious work, this father is God; and therefore our Saviour adds "to my God, and your God." Christ ascended to the father, constituted to be a mediator in behalf of his people; and therefore when he calls God, "my God," it is with reference to his mediatorial character. As the son of God by nature, he is his father; but as the son of man, he is his God." Vol. ii. p. 371.

The last sentence is confused; and it is difficult to reconcile the sense with the grammar of the passage.

The writer seems not to have had very correct notions of orthodoxy.

'It is your duty to seek to be blessed in the name of the Trinity, rather than dispute about it; to rejoice with reverence and holy awe, upon a view of your privileges, rather than seek to investigate them with a bold and prying eye. Orthodoxy itself is of little value, when not attended with right affections: whereas, a man of a humble, pious, and truly catholic spirit, will bear the victorious palm, though opposed by legions of narrow and bigotted souls.' Vol. ii. p. 410.

Orthodoxy, without doubt, will avail little, if it is not attended by correspondent practice; and to be a mere disputant upon the subject of the trinity can be of little consequence; yet the church would not with such accuracy have described the different offices and characters of the triune God, if, in 'seeking to be blessed in the name of the trinity,' we might at pleasure confound the persons, or divide the substance.

But, though Mr. Southgate cannot be considered as having been strictly orthodox, his notions of toleration exhibit him in an amiable point of view.

\* In the first place, no man must despise others, because they hold opinions different from his own. In this imperfect state, men will think differently, in proportion to their different capacities and endowments. The same truths, which are clear to some, will appear obscure to others: and, whilst some are capable of nice investigations, others must be content with believing as they have been taught, and as they are led by the authority of those, who are wiser than themselves. In the mean time, if they hold the foundation, allowance must be made for the defects of men's educations, their early prejudices and involuntary mistakes. If we make no allowance for these, we then assume to ourselves the character of judges, and presume to be lords over the flock of Christ. If, indeed, their opinions should be wrong, to treat them with contempt, will only contribute to confirm them in their error. However, bitterness is no test of truth, but sadly proves, that we know not, what most concerns us to know, what spirit we ourselves are of. For, indeed, how many prejudices may there be in our own hearts, which we have not discovered? This is certain, whilst we condemn others, perhaps, for imaginary mistakes, we ourselves stand convicted for the want of substantial goodness. For, if there be any spirit more offensive to good men, or more hostile to true religion than another, — if there be any leaven more truly bitter, it is the leaven of our own arrogance and conceit mixt with our religion. Should schisms and divisions be produced by this spirit, and nothing is more likely to produce them, a good man, whilst he condemns the offence, will pity the offender. Whilst he adopts the zeal, he will abhor the malignity, that frequently attends it, and triumph over bigotry, not by using the same weapons, but by that truly christian fervency, which arises from love unfeigned.' Vol. ii. p. 114.

We shall only offer one more extract, which, with the former, will give a sufficient idea of the author's language and manner.

' Let us consider another instance or two, in which, the faculty of reading is often employed to a bad and destructive purpose. We are told that the Athenians spent their time in nothing else, but to tell, or hear, some new thing. In this disposition, vast numbers of us are their legitimate descendants. To read the news of the day is attended to, by them, with such avidity, as almost to absorb every other reading: it is their Bible, their Prayer-Book, their Whole Duty of Man: it is their law, and their gospel: the busy, as well as idle, generally find time for this gratification. Here, those, who are strangers to themselves, misemploy their time, and their attention, upon the actions, and fate of others. Here, they learn false patriotism, and pretended virtues. Here, they unlearn the modesty, which true religion inspires; and from hence, they claim a right of directing, and blaming, those that are above them. The effect of this is, what may justly be expected from those, who, unguarded by christian knowledge, and an affection for the word of God, are blindly led by libertine maxims, to a most libertine conduct.

‘As our newspapers have contributed to form our ungovernable manners, so most of those productions, which are poured from the press, under the name of novels, tend to make them loose. In some of these, the open incentives to vice are displayed, to tempt the corruptions of nature to be more corrupt. In others, the poison is gilded over with decency, and ensnares with greater facility, the young and unsuspecting. In others, the most atrocious faults are represented as objects of pity, rather than resentment. Then their guilt vanishes, and the conscience becomes more favourable to vice. In many, that are most admired, sentiment is adopted for virtue, real virtue is never seen, and false patterns of imitation are recommended to the heart. The observations I have made upon these dangerous writings are, in general, applicable to our modern favourite comedies.’ Vol. i. P. 232.

Our readers, in all probability, will now be ready to join with us in the opinion, that, if the editor, instead of printing these discourses, had added them to his private stock, the public would have sustained no injury, and his labours might have been considerably alleviated.

*A Key to the Classical Pronunciation of Greek and Latin proper Names, in which the Words are accented and divided into Syllables exactly as they ought to be pronounced; with References to Rules, which show the Analogy of Pronunciation. To which is added, a complete Vocabulary of Scripture proper Names, divided into Syllables, and accented according to Rules drawn from Analogy and the best Usage. Concluding with Observations on the Greek and Latin Accent and Quantity, with some probable Conjectures on the Method of freeing them from the Obscurity and Confusion in which they are involved, both by the Ancients and Moderns. By John Walker. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.*

‘MEN of learning will always form a sort of literary aristocracy; they will be proud of the distinction, which a knowledge of languages gives them above the vulgar, and will be fond of showing this knowledge, which the vulgar will never fail to admire and imitate.’ P. 136.

The word *aristocracy* is liable to great abuse: if it is meant as a reproach upon men of learning, we see no ground for it; for, even on the subject of this book, they are too apt to give way to vulgar opinion. Would our author wish us to cry down this aristocracy, and to form our judgment from the practice of theatrical performers and their imitators? Let it suffice, that players can seduce the world, as it is called, into a variety of false pronunciations; with this triumph, let them rest content. We are not yet so tame or passive as to resign all

claim to a literary aristocracy. Though the multitude will follow these blind guides, men of education may be permitted to retain a better mode of speaking ; for

‘ It is in these as in many English words : there are some, which, if mispronounced, immediately show a want of education ; and there are others which, though not pronounced in the most erudite manner, stamp no imputation of ignorance or illiteracy.’  
P. xxxii.

Or, as Cicero expressed himself before our author, *tamen apparet atque extat utrum simus earum rerum rudes an didicerimus.*

When the brave Kosciuszko had distinguished himself by his gallant but unsuccessful efforts to maintain the independence of his country, his name was every day in the mouths of those Englishmen, who retained the spirit of their ancestors. It was natural that the mode of pronunciation should vary ; but at length those who knew the Polish pronunciation, established among us both a better sound and a more pleasing uniformity. This was done by a literary aristocracy ; that is, by persons who were better acquainted with the pronunciation of the word than others were ; and, if we could find as good a literary aristocracy for Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, we should be happy to bow ourselves, and should see with pleasure a general obedience, to its authority.

In such an aristocracy the clergy of all denominations ought to have some rank, if they, by reading the scriptures in their different places of worship, did not give us too many proofs of their ignorance of that language which ought to be their chief study. They will probably have recourse to such a work as this, instead of applying themselves to the Hebrew. By the latter study, they would be taught to pronounce *Adonias*, *Adonibezek*, *Adonijah*, *Adonikam*, *Adoniram*, with some consistency, instead of varying the accent as our author does, who places it in the first word on the *o*, in the second on *be*, in the third on *ni*, in the fourth on *don*, in the fifth on *i* ; whereas they are all compound words, — *Adoni*, the first word of the compound, meaning, *my lord*, and requiring throughout the same accentuation. This is the most faulty part of the work before us, the writer being probably little, if at all, acquainted with the original language. Thus, in *Ami-nadab*, *min* is improperly accented ; but, wherever the accent is placed, *nadab* is to be kept entire. *Azmazeth* ought to have the accent on the second syllable ; *Baalzebub* on the last ; *Berith* on the last ; *Bethabara* on the penultimate. *Carmel* is *carm-el*, *Elishaphat* is *Eli-shaphat*, *Hephzibah* is *Hephzi-bah*. *Sabasth* also should have the accent on the penultimate ; and then it would not be confounded with *sabbath*, a word of a



very different meaning. We could point out a variety of other words, in which this vocabulary fails: but these will be sufficient to show that, if the clergy would pay as much attention to the Hebrew as a few of them do to the Greek and Latin, they might, with more propriety, direct the reading of the scriptures, than the actors do that of our favourite Shakspeare.

In the vocabulary of Greek and Latin words, there are fewer faults. In this part of the work the writer had the benefit of the literary aristocracy, whose pronunciation is in general consonant with the rules laid down by the authors whom he follows. But custom breaks through all rules. Thus we pronounce *Darius* and *Arius* with different accents, though the *i* is equally long in both words. It is not difficult to assign a reason for this difference; and we need only refer to that period, when the name of *Darius* was known to few except the learned, and that of *Arius* was in every man's mouth in the western world. We shall not, however, minutely examine the vocabulary, but consider some of the remarks on the pronunciation of Latin.

The English are accused of marring the Latin tongue by their mode of speaking it. It is certain that we might correct some faults by attending to the quantity of the vowels, as given in the poets. But let us hear the objections of Mr. Walker to any alteration.

'If this mode of pronouncing Latin be that of foreign nations, and were really so superior to our own, we certainly must perceive it in the pronunciation of foreigners, when we visit them, or they us: but I think I may appeal to the experience of every one who has had an opportunity of making the experiment; that so far from a superiority on the side of the foreign pronunciation, it seems much inferior to our own. I am aware of the power of habit, and of its being able "to make the worse appear the better reason" on many occasions; but if the harmony of the Latin language depended so much on a preservation of the quantity as many pretend, this harmony would surely overcome the bias we have to our own pronunciation; especially if our own were really so destructive of harmony as it is said to be. Till, therefore, we have a more accurate idea of the nature of quantity, and of that beauty and harmony of which it is said to be the efficient in the pronunciation of Latin, we ought to preserve a pronunciation which has naturally sprung up in our own soil, and is congenial to our native language. Besides, an alteration of this kind would be attended with so much dispute and uncertainty as must make it highly impolitic to attempt it.' P. xx.

From occasional conversation with foreigners in Latin, particularly with Italians, we differ entirely from our author:

but we acknowledge, that, unless a man has learned the foreign pronunciation, his own barbarous mode will naturally appear to him the best; and, as to the harmony of the language, the present reviewer had no just idea of it, till a journey on the continent had enabled him to correct his academical jargon, and had shown to him the true harmony of the Sapphic and Alcaïc measures, in which, upon the general plan adopted in our schools, scarcely any two adjoining stanzas are found to agree.

Our author is exceedingly angry with those scholars who give the hard sound of the *g* to *gymnastick* and *heterogeneous*, and would have the soft sound in *Geta* and *Gyges*. Yet, in *Chabrias* and *Colchis*, he gives way to the learned; but *Chthonia* he would metamorphose into *Thonia*.

Words beginning with *Sche*, as *Schedius*, *Scheria*, &c. are pronounced as if written *Skedius*, *Skeria*, &c.; and *c* before *n* in the Latin prænomen *Cneus* or *Cnæus* is mute; so in *Cnopus*, *Cnosus*, &c. and before *t* in *Cteatus*, and *g* before *n* in *Gnidus*.

Before Greek words we frequently find the uncombinable liquids *MN*, as *Mnemofyne*, *Mnesidamus*, *Mneus*, &c. These are to be pronounced with the *m* mute, as if written *Nemofyne*, *Nesidamus*, *Neus*, &c. in the same manner as we pronounce *Bdellium*, *Pneumatic*, *Gnomon*, and *Mnemonics*. P. xxviii.

*Ph*, followed by a consonant, is mute, as *Phthia*, *Phthiotis*, pronounced *Thia*, *Thiotis*, in the same manner as the naturalized Greek word *Phthicksick* is pronounced *Ticksick*.

*Ps*, *p* is mute also in this combination, as in *Psyche*, *Psammetichus*, &c. pronounced *Syke*, *Sammeticus*, &c.

*Pt*, *p* is mute in words beginning with these letters when followed by a vowel, as *Ptolomy*, *Pterilas*, &c. pronounced *Tolomy*, *Terilas*, &c.; but when followed by *l*, the *t* is heard, as in *Ptolemy*. P. xxviii.

In defiance of these rules, we shall continue to found the *c* in *Cnopus*, the *m* in *Mnesidamus*, the *ph* in *Phthia*, the *p* in *Psyche*, &c.

*Omphale*. The accentuation a mere English speaker would give to this word was experienced a few years ago by a pantomime called *Hercules* and *Omphale*; when the whole town concurred in placing the accent on the second syllable, till some classical scholars gave a check to this pronunciation by placing the accent on the first. This, however, was far from banishing the former manner, and disturbed the public ear without correcting it. Those, however, who would not wish to be numbered among the vulgar must take care to avoid the penultimate accent. P. 85.

The public ear, it seems, was disturbed by giving the true pronunciation of the word, which was also, in this case, con-

formable with the genius of the English language. Thus we hear of the peace of the church being disturbed, or the peace of the country disturbed; and this phrase means, in general, that men, being obstinately attached to their own errors, prefer indolent ignorance to activity and information. Thus the peace of the church was disturbed by Luther, according to the papists; though we are indebted to his exertions for great benefits; and the peace of ignorance, folly, and corruption, is the sleep of death, which every lover of literature and liberty must deprecate as the worst of evils.

But, though we find much to reprehend in the present work, we approve the plan; and, with judicious corrections, it may be made very useful to the unlettered part of the community.

*The Elements and Theory of the Hebrew Language. By Edward Dowling. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Longman. 1797.*

THE great difficulty in teaching the Hebrew language to an Englishman, or indeed any European, consists in the use of the points; and the disputes on this subject are known to all the learned. Various means have been devised for superseding the use of them. The scheme of Masclaf is now most in use with those who reject the points; but it does not entirely please our author, who adopts a mode between the Masoretic plan and that of Dr. Sharpe. As a specimen, we give the first psalm on his mode.

‘ Ashri he-a’th ashir

La helak

Bi-ozat rashoim

Vu-bidrak hethaim

La omed

Vo-bi-mushib lazim

La ishib

Ki am

Bi-t’rat Yeove

Hapets-hu

Vu-bi-t’rat-hu yege

Iumim vu-lile.’

P. ix.

Those who have learned Hebrew (as we have) by Masclaf’s plan, will not see much advantage in this new mode; and, if they have subsequently (as well as ourselves) rejected the Masclafian for the Masoretic readings, they will not be inclined to quit a very easy mode of reading, with points, for one in which the language, to a cultivated ear, will seem barbarous and uncouth.

Let any persons, for example, try this method in the English language; and let *b* be always pronounced as *be*, *k* as *ka*, *t* as *te*: *bad*, therefore, would be pronounced *bead*; *king* and *top*, *kaing* and *teop*. By such a mode, they would go upon a regular system to pronounce most words improperly. Of all people in the world, the English are the last who ought to object to the use of the points; for, on examining our own language, we shall find that a very great proportion of our words afford as little direction by their letters for the pronunciation, as the Hebrew. Thus, from the powers of the single letters, who can reconcile the words *though*, *foreigner*, *colonel*, with the modern pronunciation? Any one who takes up a spelling-book, and compares the mode in which an English boy learns to spell English, and a young Jew to spell Hebrew, will see that there is not more difficulty in the latter than the former practice. Scholars reject this consideration; but the exercise of three or four days with a common Jew teacher, and a short examination of some Jewish boys, will teach him more upon this subject, than he can gain from the writings of Buxtorf, Montanus, Masclef, or other Hebraists.

If we see little reason for adopting Mr. Dowling's mode of reading, still less do we approve what he calls the philosophy of the language. Our readers may form a competent idea of his views upon this subject from the following extract concerning the verb of existence.

‘ In Hebrew, this verb is composed of three letters הוה, *be*; than which a more beautiful hieroglyphic of existence never can be contrived. Time is immediately and essentially associated with the idea of material existence; so much so, that it would be difficult to give any other definition of either it or of space, than by describing them as certain relations, which all material things have amongst themselves, according to the two orders of successive and of simultaneous existence. Existence, with respect to time, or in the successive order, is it's only consideration, with which grammarians have to do in tenses:—to proceed accordingly, time past differs from the future, only as prior doth from posterior, for which reason, in the Hebrew verb, the same letter ה is caused to stand as the sign of each by means of reduplication, which, in two correspondent situations, betokens the relations of prior and posterior, in a manner which speaks at once to the eye, and to the intellect, הוה!!!

‘ The connecting medium between, v. g. the gulphs of the two eternities, the one past, the other to come, is the present moment; and, as the foregoing remarks tend to evince, that each of these is represented by an ה, so it may also be concluded, that the existing instant is denoted by ו, which yokes them together in one word,

‘ Now ה in הנה stands as a remote or primary element, i. e. in the state the highest to it’s abstract meaning, which can be exhibited, for existence is not resolvable beyond the three periods spoken of; consequently, it is discovered to be the simple hieroglyphic of connection, to which idea it’s use in betokening the present time is referrible, as well as all other offices in which it may be found employed.

‘ As every instant of time, which hath passed by, from the period of the creation of outward nature unto the present, was once present; and as every instant, which in the indefinite series shall inevitably be hereafter, will be also present; so, as it is convenient, in order to avoid ambiguity, that time, in inflections, should be represented principally by one hieroglyphic, that of connection, or present moment, the medium between the extremes will be found most applicable to every period, which it can denote by significant and systematic changes of place, in like manner as ה has been observed to do in the past, and the to come only, which changes have been shewn to have a manifest agreement with the genius of the language, by the doctrine of affixing and prefixing the pronominal fragment in the preceding section.’ p. 54.

Hence it is evident, that our author is not free from the mysticism of rabbinical writers, which has passed into some philosophical grammars; and, as he laments that he could not procure a copy of the *Εἰσα Περὸς Περύρα*, or *Diversions of Purley*, we are happy in congratulating him on the appearance of a new edition of that work, much enlarged; from the perusal of which his present ideas of the philosophy of grammar will be reduced to more simple principles.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### POLITICS.

*Letter to a County Member, on the Means of securing a safe and honourable Peace.* 8vo. 2s. Wright. 1798.

THIS writer commences with stating, as an axiom, that ‘ from France, whether republican or royalist, we can expect no sincere friendship, nor any lasting repose, while she is powerful enough to claim, and we have spirit enough to resist, that meddling with the interior concerns of independent nations, at which she has always aimed, and which every Frenchman, of every party, considers as the *geographical* prerogative of his country.’ Without denying that the French possess at present a very large share of ambition, may it not be asked, whether this ‘ meddling with the interior concerns of independent nations’ is exclusively the sin of a French government? France has certainly conquered

much in Europe, and she has treated the vanquished in the true spirit of conquest. But let it be remembered that France has not gained one inch of territory from any nations but those which rose up in arms to interfere with her interior concerns, and has respected those few states which maintained a neutrality.

It is in vain, however, that disputes are now carried on about these points. The fact is, that the power of France has been extended until it is become formidable beyond what it ever was; and the present question is, how we are to support our independence against it? Our author's plan is, that, if we mean to reduce France to her proper weight in the balance of Europe, it must be done, and can only be done, by diminishing her territorial acquisitions. If we mean to provide for the future safety of our own country, this can only be done by expelling the French from the Netherlands. The means, adds this writer, are in our possession; and they are the conquests which we have made from France and from her (*ci-devant* our) allies. We must begin with laying the foundation of a military union of the northern powers of Europe, upon such reciprocal advantages as will not be of a temporary, but of a solid and permanent nature. Part of this plan is to enable Prussia to wrest from France the conquests which she has made on this side of the Rhine; and, as a compensation to Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, for such assistance as they may be disposed to give, we are to divide among them our own colonial conquests, in stipulated proportions. Such is the outline of a plan, of which the substance is, that we should re-commence a continental war against France, with several new and some of our old allies.

It is obvious that the framer of this plan has not experience on his side; but the reader will find, in this piece, abundance of plausible reasoning, conveyed in the language of moderation, and often supported by a considerable knowledge of the political interests of Europe. In order to show that our means are equal to this new undertaking, he enters into a series of calculations, from which he would infer that the population of Great-Britain and Ireland is not short of seventeen millions, and that our credit is high and our resources are great. In the course of these discussions, he examines the various opinions which prevail with respect to the probable future state of France; and, without giving a peremptory decision, offers shrewd remarks on each.

*Remarks on the Conduct of Opposition during the present Parliament, by Geoffrey Moubray, Esq. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wright. 1798.*

The secession of the opposition is the ostensible subject of this pamphlet; but it also embraces most of the points now controverted in the political world. The author is a strenuous supporter of the present ministers, whose conduct he admires in every instance, while he censures that of their opponents with the greatest severity; his censure, however, is gross and illiberal. It is such as would not be permitted in a society that preserved any respect for the charities of human life, and is a lamentable proof of the mischiefs of party zeal. In one respect this writer's animosity carries him farther than he probably intended; for he represents the se-

cession of Mr. Fox and his associates as a great crime, at the same time that he accuses them of political heresies, which ought to make the nation rejoice that they have seceded, and ought to disqualify them from returning.

*An Appeal to the sober Understandings of Englishmen, on the present State of Ireland.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1797.

After a fair, and generally temperate, discussion of the points in dispute between the people and government of Ireland, this author recommends immediate concession of all the reasonable claims of that country; particularly a reform of parliament, and the admission of the catholics to seats in parliament and offices of trust. This advice has been repeatedly given. After farther delays it may perhaps become useless; but in the mean time, unless a third power be established as umpire, who shall determine what are 'reasonable claims?' The first claims of a people who wish to have their grievances redressed, are always reasonable; but contemptuous rejection aggravates the evil; and, when they revert to petitioning, they are apt to run into extravagance, and learn to insult and to threaten in their turn. It is thus that America was, and that Ireland may be, lost. We know not the full extent of the claims, or the number, of the disaffected in Ireland; but, if the strength of the party be not magnified by report, concession of some kind seems necessary. It appears that the catholics expected to be completely emancipated in the administration of earl Fitzwilliam; and we know that they were cruelly disappointed, and have not forgotten their disappointment. These sentiments are discussed by one who seems to have a correct acquaintance with the subject; and the appeal, we hope, will not be lost on the 'sober understandings' of Englishmen.

*A Review of the Conduct of the Prince of Wales, from his Entrance into Public Life, till his late Offer to undertake the Government of Ireland.* 8vo. 2s. Lee and Hurst. 1797.

The author of this vindication is apparently a flatterer; for he endeavours to prove, that, of all the accusations brought against the prince, there is not a single quality which would make a *man* contemptible or a *king* dangerous. He can see, in this exalted character, no hypocrisy, no circumvention, no avarice, no hardness of heart, no arrogance, no seeds of tyranny, no illiberal and fordid vice; not one fault but which might be found in the characters of men who are brave, honourable, sincere, tender, generous, just, magnanimous. Of the charges adduced, each, he thinks, might have been made against princes who were the fathers of their people and the delight of the world.

All this, when proved, certainly amounts to a complete vindication; but there are many who will question the general authority of this reviewer, and who, in particular, will differ from him on the subject of a domestic disagreement. He affects to speak with extraordinary delicacy and reserve on this topic, while he advances, indirectly indeed, a series of accusations for which there is no proof

but his assertion, which is merely that of an anonymous writer. In the case of the prince, we might say, we had the names of his accusers. *Miles* we know, and *Pigot* we know; 'but who art thou?'

The vindicator writes with spirit; and the pamphlet will highly gratify the friends of that prince whom it presents in so great a variety of agreeable points of view.

*Thoughts on Mr. Fox's Secession for six Months, and Return for a Day. By a Suffolk Freeholder. 8vo. 1s. Bickerstaff. 1798.*

The secession is a measure which has been censured with great severity, and vindicated with some degree of skill, though perhaps not sufficient to demonstrate the propriety of such a step at the present crisis. It may yet be doubted by the well-wishers of Mr. Fox, whether the total absence of his talents has not had, in one respect, all the effect of consent, because it leaves the arguments of his opponents unanswered. On the other hand, it is impossible not to feel for men whose counsels, in all human probability, would have averted the horrors of a calamitous war. But, in whatever way this question may be viewed, we should not propose to call in the abilities of the author of this pamphlet. When party writers are at a loss to magnify the virtues and success of their patrons, they may think the cause as well promoted by heaping abuse upon their opponents; but we do not envy the head or the heart of that man who can calmly declare, or affect to believe, that 'Mr. Fox deserted his post, because he despaired of doing mischief, and returned to it because he hoped to instigate a clamour against a mode of taxation essential to the carrying on of this just and necessary war.'—The fact is, that Mr. Fox and his seceding friends can never be forgiven for having endeavoured, by their retreat, to throw a decisive odium upon the prevailing party.

*An Essay upon Public Credit: being an Enquiry how the public Credit comes to depend upon the Change of the Ministry, or the Dissolutions of Parliaments; and whether it does so or no? By Robert Harley, Esq. afterwards Earl of Oxford, and Lord High Treasurer of Great Britain; first printed, 1710. With short historical Notes, explaining the difficult Passages. 8vo. 1s. Baynes. 1797.*

No parts of this essay require explanation to a person acquainted with the history of the reign of queen Anne; nor is there much in it that is applicable to the present times, if we except the passage which was the cause of its republication, and which was quoted by the marquis of Lansdowne in a late debate. This passage is to the following purport:

'Credit is a consequence, not a cause—the effect of a substance, not a substance; 'tis the sunshine, not the sun; the quickening something, call it what you will, that gives life to trade, gives being to the branches, and moisture to the root; it is the oil of the wheel, the marrow in the bones, the blood in the veins, and the spirits in the heart of all the trade, cash, and commerce in the world.



‘ It is produced, and grows insensibly, from fair and upright dealing, punctual compliance, honourable performance of contracts and covenants—in short, it is the offspring of universal probity.

‘ It is apparent, even by its nature, it is no way dependent upon persons, parliaments, or any particular men, or set of men, as such, in the world; but upon their conduct, and just behaviour. Credit never was chained to men’s names, but to their actions; not to families, clans, or collections of men, no, not to nations; it is the honour, the justice, the fair-dealing, and the equal conduct of men, bodies of men, nations, and people, that raise the thing called credit among them; wheresoever this is found, credit will live and thrive, grow and increase; where this is wanting, let all the power and wit of man join together, they can neither give her being, or preserve her life.

‘ Arts have been tried on various occasions in the world to raise credit: art has been found able with more ease to destroy credit than to raise it. The force of art, assisted by the punctual, fair, and just dealing above said, may have done much to form a credit upon the face of things: but we find still the honour would have done it without the art, but never the art without the honour: nor will money itself, which, Solomon says, answers all things, purchase this thing called credit, or restore it when lost.’ P. 12.

*A comprehensive View of some existing Cases of probable Misapplication, in the Distribution of contingent Allowances, particularly in the Militia of Great Britain; shewing the Wisdom and Propriety of a more general Consolidation than has hitherto taken place: and containing three different Estimates of Clothing for a Militia Regiment, with occasional Remarks upon the ruinous, unjust and unproductive System of net Off-reckonings in the Army. To which are added, cursory Observations on the Monopoly of Regimental Appointment, the Absurdity of granting additional Companies and second Field Officers before the original Establishment is completed, and the Necessity of distinguishing civil from military Duties, &c.—With a Glance at the late Increase of Pay, and the Remission of Arrears to Subalterns only. Addressed to Francis Earl of Moira. By Charles James. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Egerton. 1797.*

The subjects discussed in this pamphlet are of great importance to the militia of the kingdom; but, to render the remarks generally useful, or even to draw attention to them, the writer ought to have compressed his matter into a moderate compass. Ten pages might have contained all that is valuable in this tedious and desultory letter, written (as the author elegantly observes) *off-hand*, and ‘under circumstances of peculiar hurry.’ Under such circumstances we did not expect so prolix a composition.

*The Correspondence of the Rev. C. Wyvill with the Right Honourable William Pitt. Part II. Published by Mr. Wyvill. 8vo. 6d. Johnson. 1797.*

Our readers will find an account of the first part of this correspondence in our review for December, 1796. The second part

contains, 1. Heads of a Bill, or Bills, for amending the Representation, communicated by Mr. Pitt to Mr. Wyvill, about March, 1785 : 2. An Epistle from the former to the latter : 3. Sketch of a Preamble to the Bill : 4. Corrected Clauses, communicated probably in April 1785, by Mr. Wyvill to Mr. Pitt : 5, 6. More corrected Clauses.

From these papers, the public can be at no loss to decide on the consistency of the minister, with regard to parliamentary reform. With submission, however, to Mr. Wyvill, we cannot but suggest that Mr. Pitt has not wholly abandoned the good cause. He has never ceased to *demonstrate* how *necessary* a reform of parliament is ; and, with us, *practice* is far better than *theory*.

*The Free-Man's Vade-Mecum ; or, an intended Oration on Liberty : including several Subjects which are intimately connected therewith, on Matters Civil, Ecclesiastical, and Military. With a Dedication to every Englishman who loves his Country. By Phileutberos, a Pioneer in the Army of Reason. Small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Jordan. 1798.*

This oration includes most of the topics of political reformation which have been lately agitated between ministerial writers and their opponents. The author is one of those who are dissatisfied with existing circumstances ; and he urges his censures and his schemes of improvement with plausibility. If he advances ~~nothing~~ new, he has at least given the substance of many of those regulations, which must at one time or other be adopted, in order to stem the torrent of corruption, and restore the purity of the British constitution. He humbly calls himself a *pioneer* in the army of reason ; and his style and manner may be thought to disqualify him for a higher rank.

## L A W.

*Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Court of Exchequer, from Michaelmas Term 36 George III. to Trinity Term 37 George III. both inclusive. By Alexander Anstruther, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. Royal 8vo. Vol. III. Parts I. II. 5s. each. Clarke and Son. 1797.*

In a former Review \*, we noticed with approbation two volumes of these Reports. In the two parts of the present volume, Mr. Anstruther has continued his labours with accuracy, as to the legal points of which he has reported the discussion and determination. This is unquestionably the *chief*, but in these days of literature perhaps not the *only* duty of a reporter ; and we think that, if the style of Mr. Anstruther had been less harsh and jejune, it might still have preserved the advantage of equal perspicuity.

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XVI. p. 277.

*Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Courts of Common Pleas and Exchequer Chamber, in Easter and Trinity Terms 37th George III. 1797. By John Bernard Bosanquet, of Lincoln's-Inn; and Christopher Puller, of the Inner Temple. Folio. Part I. 5s. sewed. Butterworth. 1797.*

The Reports of Mr. Henry Blackstone form a valuable addition to that species of legal publication; and the professors of the law regret that they have not been continued beyond two volumes: the gentlemen who have thus undertaken regularly to report the decisions in the court of common pleas, are (if we are rightly informed) young in the profession; but it is no more than justice to remark, that, from the present specimen, they do not appear to have falsely estimated their competency for the undertaking, and that, with the aid of a little experience, they will be able to follow their predecessors *passibus æquis*.

*An Essay on the Law of Usury. By Mark Ord, Esq. Barrister at Law. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Brooke. 1797.*

In our Review for May 1797, we had occasion to notice a copious treatise on the subject of usury, published by Mr. Plowden. That production was historically comprehensive and entertaining; and it also appeared to us correct and ample in the detail of legal information which the writer professed to convey. The present work is less copious; but it will prove useful to the practising lawyer, as containing the principal points and references necessary to assist him in his researches. It is more correctly printed than many books of the kind; and the authorities from the Reports, &c. are accurately cited.

### MEDICINE, &c.

*An Essay on Burns, principally upon those which happen to Workmen in Mines from the Explosions of Inflammable Air, (or Hydrogen Gas.) Containing a View of the Opinions of antient and modern Authors upon the Subject of Burns; and a Variety of Cases conducted upon different Principles: from which an Attempt is made to rescue this Part of the Healing Art from Empiricism, and to reduce it to the Laws of the Animal Economy. By Edward Kentish, Surgeon. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Sewed. Robinsons. 1797.*

In a well-written address to the proprietors of the collieries upon the river Tyne, Mr. Kentish observes, that, during a period of more than six hundred years in which the coal-trade has flourished, not a single remark upon the subject of his work has been preserved on record. This sufficiently shows in what a state of neglect so important a part of surgery has remained, and strongly justifies the author's attempts to improve it.

He begins the essay with an explanation of the nature of the gasses which produce those fatal explosions that take place in mines; but, in affording a view of this subject, he seems to have gone farther than was necessary. A plain detail of the leading conclusions would have been sufficient, without relating the experiments of Lavoisier and other chemists. The information is, however, just, and in many respects useful.

He next examines, at considerable length, the opinions and modes of practice that have been inculcated by the ancients and moderns. The different writers, he asserts, have disseminated opposite doctrines and contradictory modes of practices; and nothing has hitherto been done on any fixed or solid principles.

The observations which he makes on what he terms the first mode of practice, or that which he found generally pursued in cases of burns from the explosion of airs, are in general pertinent; and the absurdity of the views with which many of the applications were made, is well illustrated, and enforced by examples.

On the second mode of treatment, we meet with reflections that are equally interesting and important. After remarking that the opinions of writers are only consistent with respect to the internal plan of practice, which was debilitating, the writer shows the pernicious tendency of proceeding by debilitating remedies, and the advantages of a stimulating internal one, when not carried too far, or continued too long. Here likewise we have cases in illustration of the reasonings that are employed.

The third mode of treatment is copiously discussed. Having acknowledged some errors into which he at first fell, he informs us, that the termination of bad cases in mortification, by the first mode of practice, changed his opinion in some particulars; and judicious principles are laid down by him as the basis of successful practice; but, for these, we refer to the work itself.

In an Appendix he makes some just remarks on the application of vinegar and chalk, as recommended by Mr. Cleghorn for the cure of burns.

This essay is an ingenious attempt to fix the treatment of burns upon just and philosophical principles; and the author has perhaps gone as far as facts at present would admit. Much, however, is still to be done; and Mr. Kentish, we hope, will not neglect those opportunities which may soon occur to him. It may not be improper to add, that he has rendered his ideas and opinions, in some measure, less intelligible, by blending them too much with those of other writers.

*A Practical Essay on the Club-Foot, and other Distortions in the Legs and Feet of Children, intended to shew under what Circumstances they are curable, or otherwise. By T. Sheldrake. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Murray and Highley. 1798.*

Mr. Sheldrake produces the testimony of many respectable practitioners of medicine to prove, that he has, by means of his bandages, cured several cases of very badly deformed feet and incurvated limbs. He insists on the cure of the former (the club-foot) being attempted as soon after birth as possible; for if the attempt to correct the deformity be deferred, the strength of the muscles will increase; they will become confirmed in their faulty action; the pressure made in walking will aggravate the distortion; and the bones will at length be rigidly ossified and mis-shapen. Yet, even under these circumstances, considerable benefit may be obtained from the use of bandages. Those which are employed by Mr. Sheldrake are elastic. The limb is brought into a right position by

means of a spring, and many different springs are used in the course of the cure, so that the force employed is always adapted to the feelings of the patient and the exigency of the case.

*A new System of Physiology, comprehending the Laws by which animated Beings in general, and the Human Species in particular, are governed, in their several States of Health and Disease. By Richard Saumarez, Surgeon to the Magdalen Hospital. 2 Vols. 8vo. 14s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.*

Lest any of our readers, upon perusing the title of this work, should suppose that it treated merely of the physiology of the animal body, we shall copy the Table of Contents of the first volume, to show the diversity of subjects which it comprehends, and to point out the paths by which the author arrives at his ultimate object, the physiology of the human body.

‘ On the general Properties of Common, of Living, and of Dead Matter.—On the particular Properties of Living and Dead Matter.—Of Common Matter.—Of the Materialists.—Of the Oxygenous Philosophers.—Of the Brunonian System.—Of Dr. Darwin’s Doctrine.—The Procession of Living Beings.—Final Cause of Vegetable Existence.—Final Cause of Brutal Existence.—The Sentient Principle is not the same as the Living.—The final Cause of Human Existence.—Of the Means by which the final Cause of Human Existence is attained.—Of the College of Physicians.—Of the Corporation of Surgeons.—Of the Means by which Individuals attain the final Cause of their Existence.—The Relation Man bears to the Deity.—The Relation of Deity to Man.—Of the anatomical Structure of the vegetable System.—Of the Decomposition and Death of the vegetable System.—Of vegetable Temperature.—Of the Mode of Propagation in different animal Systems, from the more simple to the more complicated.—Of the Mode of Generation of the Kangaroo.—On the proximate Cause of Œstrum.—Of Propagation in the Human Species.—Of Menstruation.—Of the Testes, or generating Organs of the Male.’

Mr. Saumarez reasons in a different manner from that which is usually deemed the best: instead of collecting, arranging, and comparing effects, in order to investigate their causes, he first finds out the cause, and then traces its agency through the various effects which it produces. But it may naturally be asked, how is he able so promptly to discover the causes of things? By certain self-evident truths, he would reply. Thus, having determined in his own mind, that common matter is passive, and living matter active, he at once embraces Mr. Hunter’s opinion of the *materia vitæ*, and carries his ideas of its powers to a greater extent than that celebrated physiologist. The whole of the work is strongly tinged with such notions, and modes of reasoning; and the author seems to have read and thought upon most subjects, connected with the physiology of the animal body, without that profundity which would render it necessary for us to give an abstract of his opinions. We are induced to add, that, where he treats of what appears to us the principal subject, he gives a very imperfect account of the present state of physiology.

## NATURAL HISTORY, &amp;c.

*A Short History of Insects, (extracted from Works of Credit) designed as an Introduction to the Study of that Branch of Natural History, and as a Pocket Companion to those who visit the Leverian Museum. 12mo. 3s. 6d. sewed. White. 1797.*

We have been highly pleased with this little manual, which describes each order and genus of insects, and gives a short account of the manners, food, &c. of some of the more remarkable species. The plates, in execution, excel those of similar publications. The arrangement is that of Linnæus.

*Elements of Chemistry, and Natural History. To which is prefixed the Philosophy of Chemistry. By A. F. Fourcroy. Translated from the Fourth and last Edition of the original French Work, by R. Heron. 4 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 4s. Boards. Murray and Highley.*

It is sufficient to announce this translation from the fourth edition of Fourcroy. The fourth chiefly differs from the third \* in being more explicit: it is very slightly enlarged, and not materially altered; for, in that, the new theory was adopted. The translator's style is improved; and, on the whole, the present edition merits our regard.

*Vocabulary and Tables of the Old and New Nomenclatures of the Names of all the Subjects of Chemical Science: the Old Nomenclature being that which was employed by Chemists in general, before the Discoveries of the late M. Lavoisier: the New Nomenclature being that which was invented by the joint Labours of Messrs. de Morveau, Lavoisier, Berthollet, and Fourcroy, in 1787. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Murray and Highley.*

These tables and the vocabulary are well known to modern chemists, and make a part of Mr. Heron's translation of Fourcroy's fourth edition. The 'Discourse on Modern Chemistry,' which precedes, included also in Mr. Heron's publication, is a slight elementary treatise, adapted to the use of learners.

## RELIGION.

*Remarks on Revelation and Infidelity: being the Substance of several Speeches lately delivered in a private Literary Society in Edinburgh: with Anecdotes of Two of the Members; and an Appendix, containing Two Letters which have since passed between them. By A. M. Secretary. 12mo. 3s. sewed. Vernor and Hood. 1797.*

'That we should have our seminaries of learning contaminated by insolent foreigners, as mentioned in your letter; that we should have our youth perverted; our mode of education traduced; and our religion and laws calumniated, by exotics, totally unacquainted with them, and of whom we know nothing, — is, if possible, still more intolerable. Men have certainly a right to think of the government and policy of foreign states as they please; but no man

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\* The second edition was translated by Mr. Nicholson; and a volume was published in 1789, containing the additions of the third.

can be at liberty, while under the protection of any state, to contribute to its overthrow, or to render its subjects dissatisfied with their religion and laws; not merely because he can probably be no good judge of either, but because such conduct is morally and fundamentally wrong.' P. 344.

What would this debater have said of the early Christians, who undertook long and dangerous peregrinations, to render people dissatisfied with their opinions, and to exhort them to a change? We were sorry to find such an instance of illiberality in the work before us; and it also gave us some displeasure to observe the anonymous writer alluding to the academical conduct of an unfortunate man, condemned by Scottish law to live in New South Wales. We have every reason to believe that the insinuation is unfounded. The plan of the work is to give the remarks in the form of speeches at a debating club in Scotland; and the matter in general is superior to the manner: but, after the excellent apology of the bishop of Llandaff, we cannot recommend this production to our readers on either side of the Tweed.

*A Sermon, preached in the Church of St. John Baptist, Wakefield, December 19th, 1797, on Occasion of a general Thanksgiving to Almighty God for the many signal and important Victories, which his Divine Providence hath vouchsafed to his Majesty's Fleets in the Course of the present War. By the Rev. Richard Munkhouse, D.D. &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1798.*

A political rhapsody!—A late illiberal poem is more frequently quoted than the Bible; and, from the warm attachment of this preacher to the anonymous satirist, we were not surprised at the following and similar language. 'Him I pronounce a traitor to his country.' We must inform the preacher that the pulpit is not the place for his denunciations. 'That country which (if it has a fault) is too good for the grumbling hive that batters on its generous soil, and nestles with its stings in its nurturing bosom.' This style does not become the preacher of righteousness.

*Deliverance from Enemies, a Ground for Thanksgiving. A Sermon, preached on the Day of general Thanksgiving, December 19th, 1797, in the Chapel of the Asylum for Female Orphans, by William Agutter, A.M. &c. 8vo. 6d. Rivingtons. 1798.*

The best sentiment in this discourse, which does credit to its author, deserves at all times, but more particularly at the present crisis, the serious attention of the public.

'Our blessed Saviour has taught us to love our enemies; to forgive those who have injured us, to be ready to make every overture for the sake of peace. They who are the first to seek for reconciliation, have generally most goodness as well as justice on their side. Our enemies may curse, but we must bless. Although our overtures of peace have been perversely misrepresented, and obstinately refused, yet whenever a prospect of reconciliation shall open, it never can be beneath a great and Christian nation to come forward again, to forget the indignities which are past, and to be more ready to be reconciled, than to retaliate injuries.' P. 15.

*An Apology for Human Nature. By the late reverend and learned Charles Bulkley. With a prefatory Address to William Wilberforce, Esq. by John Evans, A. M. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Johnson. 1797.*

Of the two systems which contend for superiority in the moral world, one supposes, that man is by nature a detestable being in the sight of God; the other, that he makes himself so by his habits and vices. The former leads to the establishment of an omnipotent evil principle in the world; and, when rectified by the purer notions of the gospel, it still leaves its adherents attached to a very gloomy set of principles; or, if they are released by what they call the new birth, it permits them to give way to all the raptures of enthusiasm. The latter seems more favourable to the perfection of a human being in every virtue, as it excites him to shut up the avenues to vice, and to cultivate those talents which will make him more acceptable in the eyes of his creator. This work follows the latter system; in favour of which, the author argues with piety and strength of reasoning. Indeed, the very title seems to carry conviction on his side of the question. An apology for human nature is a defence of men for being born, or a defence of God for producing such a being as man.

The address to Mr. Wilberforce is very respectful; and, if it should not produce the desired effect, the writer has at least afforded some gratification to the serious part of the public, in thus bringing forward these valuable remains of his pious and excellent friend.

*England's Privileges: a Thanksgiving Sermon, preached in the Diocese of Hereford, on Tuesday, December 19, 1797. By the Rev. D. Lloyd, &c. 8vo. 1s. Dilly. 1797.*

We cannot speak, in terms of praise, either of the sense or the language of this discourse.

### EDUCATION.

*The Improvement of Time for the Instruction of Children. 8vo. 6d. Darton and Harvey. 1797.*

*Truth and Filial Love. A Little Drama. In three Acts. 8vo. 1s. Lee and Hurst. 1797.*

These little productions belong to that useful class of writings for the entertainment and instruction of children, to which some of the most esteemed writers in our nation have not disdained to make additions. We have no objection to offer to these two productions, except that, in the first, the character of the late king of Sweden would better have been omitted, as political characters of recent times are out of place in books intended for children.

### P. O E T R Y.

*The Hurricane: a Theosophical and W. Stern Eclogue. To which is subjoined, a Solitary Effusion in a Summer's Evening. By William Gilbert. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Crosby.*

We have never had occasion to notice a more extraordinary



work than the present. The *theosophy* of the eclogue we do not perfectly comprehend; nor should we have discovered that 'more is meant than meets the ear,' were not this mystical meaning earnestly enforced in the notes. The author seems deeply convinced of the importance of his opinions.

'To the world I give them' (he says); 'I must give them; for each claims his own, and the derived progeny as eagerly converses the claim. To try to with-hold them would be vain, and it would be pusillanimous, thievish, and tyrannical: and to exclude an individual from a free choice of receiving the fruit of my elaboration, would be murder. Therefore, I pour out and drain the phial on the air and to the four winds of heaven; and I do it most fearlessly.' P. 102.

Mr. Gilbert will not be surpris'd if we forbear to comment on his extensive notes: he says himself —

'I AM NOT UNDERSTOOD, 'Tis well.

I UNDERSTAND MYSELF. It is better.' p. 92.

The subject of the poem is the preservation of a female from shipwreck, who remains in the vessel after the crew and the other passengers have left it for their boats, and perished. The vessel is driven up a creek, and safely stranded.

'No hand remained. The tempest was her pilot,  
And the mighty arm that winged the ruin.' P. 26.

Elmira, who has slept through the storm, now awakes, and finds herself in safety. Here we have a beautiful comparison:

'So infant spirits,  
Who wing their animating flight of death  
In pleasing slumbers from their mothers' arms,  
Alight unknowing on celestial ground.' r. 29.

The poet meets her, and the conversation between them is oddly distinguished as a dramatic dialogue between Elmira and I. This is the whole subject, and the doctrine inferred from it seems to be the torpid resignation of Turkish fatalism.

The author's metre is as eccentric as his theosophy. As a specimen, we extract his description of the storm:

'Just where the horizon bends to meet the wave,  
Within the farthest reach of human ken,  
A SAIL appeared. The mild ray far beaming  
From the western sun glanced on her canvas,  
And beheld it spread before the rising breeze.  
The rising breeze far from the northward moved,  
Ruffling along, and blackened as it came.  
The affrighted plover from its blast retired;  
The lizard nestled in the watchman's hut,  
And heavy, awful, gloom poured deepening on,  
Soon reigning darkness o'er creation drew  
The deep-black curtain of involving night:  
The tempest thickened; and the dark wind howled  
Encreasing horrors and sublimer blasts

Heavy the deep-hung atmosphere along.  
 Retired as soon as straws around me felt  
 The wind, I, hence, enjoyed in silent peace  
 The rending gale. But ever and anon,  
 Some crash of trees or noise of swift destruction  
 Met my ear. Soon the expected signals of  
 Distress roll through the heavy storm: the wind  
 Almost suppressed the deep-mouthed sound it bore.  
 Reiterate at rapid intervals,  
 The guns were heard, and oft times joined the thunder.  
 The firing ceased. The aggravated storm rode  
 Wide and unrivalled through the midnight air,  
 All else was silence.'

*Poems on interesting Events in the Reign of King Edward III. written in the Year MCCCCLII. By Laurence Minot. With a Preface, Dissertations, Notes, and a Glossary. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Egerton.*

This old author was rescued from obscurity by a remarkable circumstance. Some former possessor of the manuscript in which his poems are contained had written his name, Richard Chawser, on one of the supernumerary leaves. The compiler of the Cotton catalogue, printed at Oxford in 1696, converted this signature into Geoffrey Chaucer, and therefore described the volume in these words: CHAUCER, *Exemplar emendatè scriptum*. Mr. Tyrwhitt, whilst he was preparing his edition of the Canterbury Tales, consulted this manuscript, and discovered the poems of Laurence Minot; a person whose name appears to have been totally forgotten.

The versification of this poet is uncommonly easy and harmonious for the period in which he lived, and an alliteration, as studied as that of Pierce Plowman, runs through all his varieties of metre. He has not the dull prolixity of many early authors; nor do we find in his remains those pictures of ancient times and manners, from which early writers derive their greatest value. In the easy flow of his language, he certainly equals Chaucer; but here the merit of Laurence Minot ends.

We subjoin a short extract.

‘ War this winter oway,  
 Wele wald i wene  
 That somer suld schew him  
 In schawes ful schene;  
 Both the lely and the lipard  
 Suld geder on a grene.  
 Mari, have minde of thi man,  
 Thou whote wham i mene;  
 Lady, think what i mene,  
 I mak thee my mone;  
 Thou wreke gude king Edward  
 On wikked syr John.  
 ‘ Of Gynes ful gladly  
 Now will i begin,

We wote wele that woning  
 Was wikked for to win :  
 Crist, that swelt on the rode,  
 For sake of mans syn,  
 Hald tham in gude hele  
 That now er tharein !  
 Inglis-men er tharein,  
 The kastell to kepe ;  
 And John of France es so wroth  
 For wo will he wepe.' P. 48.

The notes chiefly consist of extracts from our old chronicles, relating to the events celebrated in the poems: they occupy more than one half of the volume, and are, we think, unnecessarily extended.

*Epistle from Lady Grange to Edward D ———, Esq. written during her Confinement in the Island of St. Kilda.* 4to. 2s. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

A more interesting story than that of lady Grange can scarcely be found in the annals of romance. The genius of this writer, however, is not adequate to the subject. The lines descriptive of St. Kilda are merely descriptive, without that mixture of feeling which should give them the appearance of dramatic nature: and the satire is altogether misplaced. But the author is certainly not without talents; and his versification is harmonious and spirited.

' While struggling pangs this tortured bosom rend,  
 The bliss by heaven denied, Despair shall lend.  
 Within this lonely cell, this desert cave,  
 Again I taste the freedom Nature gave.  
 From splendid cares and toilsome grandeur driv'n,  
 I share the fullen dignity of heav'n.  
 When the gay sun his youthful journey ran,  
 Ere man had learn'd to be the slave of man,  
 No cruel father's avaricious rage  
 Bade blooming Beauty link with withering Age,  
 " Go—meet thy tott'ring husband's cold embrace,  
 While the tear trickles down that lovely face.  
 Go—ast the loving matron's tender part,  
 Then dream of the fond youth who own'd thy heart.  
 Though murder'd Love on every joy must steal,  
 Go—seign the transport thou canst never feel ;  
 Go—vex the midnight couch with many a sigh,  
 For crimson folds shall shroud thy misery ;  
 Go—yield thy soul to frenzy,—to despair,—  
 For wealth, that cannot ease, shall gild thy care.  
 So shall no pang my parting soul annoy,  
 But thy old father's heart shall dance with joy." P. 8.

A striking incident in the story is not noticed by this author: we allude to the lady's constant employment of securing letters from the effects of water, and throwing them into the sea, in the hope that they might reach some friendly hand.

*Effusions of Fancy.* 12mo. 2s. Richardson. 1798.

In this collection we find little that deserves either praise or censure. We select the sonnet to Commerce, as one that will favourably display the author's talents; and we may observe that his sentiments are always unexceptionable.

'Commerce! gain-grasping power, my dubious heart  
Knows not if thou deservest praise or blame,  
Whether the blessing of the world thou art,  
Or civilized man's unceasing shame.  
Could thy wide arms unite all human kind,  
In one firm compact of fraternal love,  
For thee the muse her richest wreaths should bind,  
For thee her strains in sweetest measures move:  
But if thy vot'ries in the gloomy den  
Of trade immur'd are callous to distress,  
Or if thy hard hands forge for fellow-men  
The chains of slavery and of wretchedness,  
Still shall she execrate the power that gave  
Wealth to the tyrant, misery to the slave.' P. 25.

The writer has improperly entitled his pieces *Effusions of Fancy*; for we scarcely perceive any traits of poetical imagination.

*Walter and William, an Historical Ballad; translated from the original Poem, of Richard Cœur de Lion.* 8vo. 2s. Boosey. 1797.

The internal evidence of this poem seems to prove it to be modern. Richard the First would not have moralised upon

'what's entail'd  
On war's pernicious trade.' P. 12.

The following stanzas are palpably borrowed from the Lenore of Bürger.

"Haste! haste! clasp on thy shining arms,  
Bestride thy sable steed;  
Come on! come on!—ere morning's dawn  
The murderer shall bleed.

"My snorting courser paws the ground,  
He will not—cannot stay;  
We've far to ride—the night is short,  
To vengeance haste away."

"To vengeance, William!—why so late?  
Remain till dawn with me."

"Walter, the deed was dark as hell,  
As dark shall vengeance be.

"My snorting courser paws the ground,  
He will not—cannot stay;  
We've far to ride—the night is short,  
To vengeance haste away." P. 19.

If this quotation were not sufficient proof, the shallow and angry arguments in the Preface justify us in what this writer calls 'scoring him down as an imitator, or a plagiarist.'

*The Trap: a Poem. By a Lady.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Richardson. 1797.

‘ A little great man,  
Whose life’s but a span,  
To a carpenter went,  
In the middle of Lent,  
And bid him prepare  
A trap to ensnare  
A widow and son,  
To occasion some fun  
To the carpenter’s wife and her cronies.’ p. 9.

This specimen of the poem will suffice.

*The Age of Folly: a Poem.* 4to. 2s. Clarke. 1797.

This *Age of Folly* is one of the *foolish* productions of the *age*. Some of the lines are tolerable, and some are wretched, as our specimen will show.

‘ Sad times, I ween, when bishops learn to box !  
In spite of Paul’s epistle—orthodox ;  
Who writes, that he who holds th’ important trust,  
Should riots shun, be diligent, and just :  
No striker—wrangler—nor given to wine—  
Nor after heaps of filthy lucre pine.  
But we’ll suppose the bishop oft’ had read,  
“ Fight the good fight,”—and you have nought to dread ;  
So finding that his limbs were strong and stout,  
His reverence fairly—fought the battle out !’ p. 13.

## DRAMA.

*Secrets Worth Knowing; a Comedy, in Five Acts. As performed at the Theatre Royal, Covent Garden. By Thomas Morton, Esq.* 8vo. 2s. Longman. 1798.

A concealed will and a concealed marriage are the chief incidents in the plot of this comedy. The distress ceases when the marriage is avowed. The humorous part partakes too much of the nature of broad farce; and we scarcely recollect a character more completely unlike any thing in nature than Rostrum the auctioneer. We select a specimen of this character.

‘ Enter ROSTRUM.

‘ *Rof.* There she stands.

‘ *Rofc.* (*sings*) “ Deel take the wars, that hurried Willie from me.”

‘ *Rof.* Who the devil is Willie—I feel very awkward. (*aside*.) How do you do ma’am?

‘ *Rofc.* Now for a specimen of a modern lover.

‘ *Rof.* I hear, ma’am, you have a charming estate.

‘ *Rose*. A modern lover indeed—which estate, in my opinion, sir, you value above it’s merits.

‘ *Rose*. I beg your pardon, ma’am—no—when I am call’d in to value an estate, I —

‘ *Rose*. Sir! —

‘ *Rose*. Zounds! no, ma’am; what I wish to speak of is quite another article, I mean quite another lot—I mean quite another affair—’tis not the fine estate in Worcestershire; but, (*blushing*.) but the holy estate of matrimony, ma’am.

‘ *Rose*. Well sir, what of it?—pray speak?

‘ *Rose*. (*aside*.) I am tongue-tied—’tis damned hard, I can only preach in my own pulpit.

‘ *Rose*. What did you say, sir?

‘ *Rose*. I said ma’am, that—I’ll try my uncle’s way. (*nods to her*.) You understand?

‘ *Rose*. Indeed I do not.

‘ *Rose*. Nor I neither. (*aside*.)—Ma’am!

‘ *Rose*. Sir!

‘ *Rose*. I say—(*aside*.) I have it—I’ll pour forth a torrent of eloquence.—Oh! miss, believe me, I despise riches—ah! how blessed should I be to live with you in a retired and peaceful cottage; situate in a delightful sporting country, with attached and detached offices, roomy cellaring, and commodious attics.

‘ *Rose*. Sir!

‘ *Rose*. Together would we inhale the vernal breeze in an acre and a half of garden ground, crammed with esculents and choice fruit trees—well stocked and cropped.

‘ *Rose*. The poor man is mad.

‘ *Rose*. With content smiling round us. I would not languish for town enjoyments—no—tho’ situated only an agreeable distance from the turnpike road, with the accommodation of a stage coach passing daily to London.

‘ *Rose*. But sir, I hate a cottage—and when I marry —

‘ *Rose*. The premises may be viewed with tickets, and immediate possession had.

‘ *Rose*. Quite—quite mad.—

‘ *Rose*. Well, miss—after all that, don’t you love me?

‘ *Rose*. No—(*sings*.)

“The pride of all nature was sweet Willie O!”

‘ *Rose*. Damn Willie—my name is Tom.’ p. 38.

This piece, like most modern comedies, will be represented for a season, and then consigned to oblivion.

*Blue Beard; or, Female Curiosity! a Dramatick Romance. Written by George Colman, the Younger. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

To supply the place of harlequinade by an entertainment which admits the pomp of pantomimic spectacle without its buffoonery, and heightens its effects by dramatic dialogue, was certainly a commendable attempt; and for this purpose Mr. Colman judiciously made choice of a popular story. In the character of Abomelique, we recognise Blue-Beard, the old acquaintance of our childhood.

The dialogue is amusing; and it aspires to nothing more. A short specimen of the humorous part will suffice; it is the kind of wit which is obvious to every one, and with which therefore all are in some degree pleased.

'*Ibrahim.* Mercy on me!—I quake in my cloaths like a cold jelly in a bag! They are battering the castle to pieces. I am the unluckiest Mussulman in all Turkey! Here's a building that has stood wind and weather this age, and the moment I pop my nose into it, it begins tumbling about my ears.— [Shouts.

'*A cry of TO ARMS! TO ARMS!*

To arms! O, dear!—I had much rather to legs, if I knew which way to escape. Now I shall be expected to put myself in the front of the ranks, because I am *Major Domo*;—but, if I do, I'll give them leave to mince the *Major Domo* for his son-in-law's supper. (ALARUM).

'*Enter 1st. SLAVE.*

'O Mahomet! what's that?

'1st. *Slave.* An enemy is on the walls.

'*Ibra.* Then, you cowardly rascal, do you go and knock him into the ditch.

'1st. *Slave.* We wait for you. You are appointed our leader.—There is no discipline without you.—We want a head.

'*Ibra.* Do you?—So shall I, if I go with you.—Get on before—Tell 'em to fight like fury;—and I'll be with them, to reward their valour, when it's all over.—Run that way, that leads into the action.

'1st. *Slave.* I will.

[*Exit Slave.*

'*Ibra.* And I'll run this way, that leads out of it.

[*Exit.*

'(Shouts, Alarum, &c.)' P. 49.

## NOVELS, &c.

*The History of Sir George Warrington; or, The Political Quixote.*  
By the Author of the *Female Quixote*. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d.  
Sewed. Bell. 1797.

The hero of this novel is introduced to the reader's acquaintance in the following terms.

'He was just twenty-one, and, having lost his father about eight months, was in full possession of an unincumbered estate of six thousand pounds a year. His countenance was open, animated, and interesting: his eyes expressive of more good sense than his tongue had ever yet uttered: his complexion would have been too fair, but that the glow of health, added to the effects of the sun, to which he was constantly exposed, gave it a darker shade; and his features, though not exactly regular, were such as no one could observe without pronouncing him a handsome young man. His air had something in it of natural grace, as his address had of natural courtesy, which it was easily perceived a few months intercourse with the great world would convert into elegance, as, though rustic, he was by no means vulgar; for that politeness

which springs from an innate wish of pleasing, and that dignity which is ever the result of conscious worth and native integrity, require but little artificial polish to render their possessors not merely esteemed but admired.' Vol. i. p. 12.

Sir George is not long on the stage before he has the misfortune to be thrown from his horse, and to break one of his legs. In the melancholy retirement imposed upon him by this accident, he becomes fond of reading; and, among other books which the vicar of the parish puts into his hands, he meets with Paine's *Rights of Man*, and commences his political Quixotism, by declaring himself a champion for universal liberty and general equality. His zeal, however, is soon allayed by the adventures of a footman, who had contrived to run away with his master's daughter. This young lady is rescued by our hero, and restored to her parents. He afterwards has an interview with a lady of the name of Moreland, who had entered a convent in France, and was obliged to leave that country in consequence of the revolution. On coming to England she found herself without the means of subsistence. Our Quixote is charmed with her person and address, and puts her under the protection of persons of honour and integrity. In short, after various peregrinations and adventures, he is convinced of the folly of his principles, and of the impossibility of his being able to do much good. He therefore closes his wanderings, and marries Louisa Moreland.

In these volumes we do not find any thing that can deprave the understanding, or corrupt the heart; and it is proper to add, that there are some happy delineations of character, and just remarks on the manners and principles of the present age. We refer particularly to our author's account of the Kettering family—the Thorntons—Miss Carruther, and Louisa Moreland. The short sketch of Mrs. Wilmot, with which we shall close this article, is not ill executed.

'Mrs. Wilmot was a woman of a very peculiar kind: she had no character at all: though this assertion of mine is in direct opposition to that line of Pope which declares it to be the fate of most women: but this I deny; nor will any of my readers contradict me. Let them recollect whether, among their own acquaintance, the generality of the fair sex do not belong to some of the following classes: the gay, the witty, the learned, the pedantic, the reserved, the capricious, the extravagant, the covetous, the vain, the haughty, the humble, or the fantastic. But Mrs. Wilmot had a claim to none of these characteristics: she was equally free from virtues and from vices; the most extreme and unconquerable indolence was the only prominent feature of her mind. However, as, by a sort of mechanical management, without much exertion, she contrived to preside in the family and to regulate it without extravagance, Mr. Wilmot was very well contented. He knew she did not save so much as the wives of some of his acquaintance, but then he was well assured she did not spend; and, on an average, he thought himself more fortunate than many of his friends whose ladies decorated their own persons with what they spared from the house and table. But the most unpardonable



effect of her negligence was, the little pains she took to adorn her daughters and set them forward in the world. Unlike all mothers, she never consulted their persons or their appearance in the pattern of a new gown; was never solicitous to chaperon them to public places, or contrive schemes to draw in young men to dance with them; never was anxious to invite gentlemen of fortune to their house, and then entertain them with the superior merit of her children, saying, "what a good wife the eldest would make! and how well she understood the œconomy of a family! hinting that the Miss Beechcrofts and the Miss Anneslys knew nothing but the fashions: that the youngest was such a mild tempered creature, she must never marry unless she met with a man as amiable as herself; and that the second was, in any kind of illness, the best nurse imaginable." Vol. ii p. 94.

*The Rector's Son* By Anne Plumtre, Author of *Antoinette*. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Sewed. Lee and Hurst. 1798.

Those readers who do not regard the probability of a story may derive pleasure from this work. Though we do not consider it as having any great merit, it is not altogether contemptible.

*The Rock; or, Alfred and Anna. A Scottish Tale.* By a Young Lady. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Sewed. Lee and Hurst. 1798.

This tale is crowded with adventures; the language is frequently inaccurate; and the ideas are sometimes confused. 'The forrowing angel who enrols the day,' is said to 'dip his pen in blood, in spoil, in desolation!'

*Ellinor; or, the World as it is. A Novel.* By Mary Ann Hanway. 4 Vols. 12mo. 18s. Boards. Lane. 1798.

The story is interesting; and the sentiments are unexceptionable. We sometimes meet with an unpleasant pertness in the style; but it would be well if circulating libraries contained no worse books than *Ellinor*.

*Hannah Hewitt; or, the Female Crusoe. Being the History of a Woman of uncommon mental, and personal Accomplishments; who, after a variety of extraordinary and interesting Adventures in almost every Station of Life, from splendid Prosperity to abject Adversity, was cast away in the Grosvenor East-Indiaman: and became for three Years the sole Inhabitant of an Island, in the South Seas. Supposed to be written by herself.* 3 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Dibdin.

This is a professed imitation of the *Robinson Crusoe* of De-Foe; but it does not exhibit one spark of the genius displayed in that celebrated novel. It affords little amusement, and excites little interest. The adventures are grossly improbable, the dialogue vulgar, and the sentiments trite.

*Clara Lennox; or, the Distressed Widow. A Novel. Founded on Facts. Interspersed with an historical Description of the Isle of Man.* By Mrs. Lee. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. Sewed. Parsons. 1797.

The authoress professes that the intention of this effort is 'to expose the insidious arts of hypocrisy, and the malevolent effects of jealousy, disguised under the semblance of friendship,

and also to illustrate an example of virtue patiently suffering under the most bitter persecution.' And she trusts that 'the whole being drawn from characters in *real life*, will be considered by the candid and indulgent reader, as some apology for the numerous defects of its style and execution.' We are sorry that we cannot admit this apology, because, in a novel, we do not expect characters in real life, and because we strongly suspect, that, although the foundation of this novel may be *in fact*, the superstructure is mere fiction. This, however, is no objection to its useful tendency; and it may be read with some advantage as well as with pleasure. But it contains none of those striking delineations of conduct or passion which show an intimate knowledge of the human mind; and the language is often vulgar and ungrammatical.

*Moral Tales: consisting of the Reconciliation, a Sketch of the Belvoir Family. A Fairy Tale in the Modern Style. Clementia and Malitia, a Fairy Tale in the Ancient Style. Charles and Maria, a Novel, founded on Fact. The best Heart in the World, a Novel, the Offspring of Fancy. By Joseph Moser, Esq. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1797.*

In the modern fairy tale, the introduction of the fairy is useless. Mr. Moser mentions 'fays, fairies, and elves,' as different species of airy beings. This is strange ignorance for one who makes use of their agency.

*The Siamese Tales: being a Collection of Stories told to the Son of the Mandarin Sam-Sib, for the Purpose of engaging his Mind in the Love of Truth and Virtue. With an Historical Account of the Kingdom of Siam. To which is added the principal Maxims of the Talapoins. Translated from the Siamese. 12mo. 2s. Vernor and Hood. 1797.*

These tales are calculated to promote 'the love of virtue through the medium of fiction.' They are sufficiently interesting to attract the attention of youth; and, although they possess none of the splendid imagery of the Arabian tales, their morality is such as cannot be presented in too many shapes.

*Interesting Tales, selected and translated from the German. 12mo. 3s. Lane. 1797.*

We have some doubts whether these tales were translated from the German; but we are clearly of opinion that they were not worth the trouble of translation.

#### MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

*Reflections on the Surgeons' Bill: in Answer to three Pamphlets \* in Defence of that Bill. By John Ring, Member of the Corporation of Surgeons. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Hookham and Carpenter. 1798.*

Mr. Ring criticises the pamphlets published by the advocates

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XXII. pp. 115, 116, 117.

of the court of assistants of the company of surgeons; but, as he is professedly of the opposite party, a perfectly candid examination of those pieces was hardly to be expected. There is, in this book, a very improper degree of personality, which, combined with the author's fondness for playing with words, and even letters, takes away his attention from arguments, and from the subject of consideration. When we spoke of Mr. Ring's playing with letters, we alluded to the following passage relating to Mr. Chevalier, who is a master of arts, and the author of one of the books criticised by Mr. Ring.

‘Whether he was really the author of the book, or only fathered the offspring of another, as some suspect to have been the case, he deserves to have the fourth letter of the alphabet added to his degree; and the three letters brought into close conjunction. It might then be said, that much learning had made him mad.’ P. 224.

Such trifling ought not to have been indulged. There are two objects, however, which are properly brought forward to public notice. The business to be transacted by the directors of the company is of a two-fold nature — judicial and scientific; but the latter is most important because it contributes in the greatest degree to the general good.

‘It has been proposed, for the examiners and the court of assistants to be a distinct body: which is agreeable to reason, and to the act of parliament; though it may not be agreeable to the wishes of the framers of a corporation. For the able discharge of the duties of an examiner, in which the public interest in the corporation consists, and by which the honour of the corporation must be supported, great abilities are requisite; for saving or spending a few pounds, shillings, and pence, mediocrity of talents may suffice.

‘I can see no reason why the court of assistants should not be allowed a compensation for their trouble, as well as the court of examiners: but I would abolish all dinners at the expense of the corporation; which have too much resemblance to the feasts of parish officers, and look too much like embezzlement, to be creditable in a learned society.

‘Should the professional and the pecuniary departments be separated, as is here proposed, a place in the court of assistants, or among the auditors, will be no object of ambition; having no tendency to raise its possessor to the rank of an examiner. It will therefore be just and politic, to hold out to those who are elected to such offices, a prospect of reasonable remuneration. It is not natural, nor agreeable to experience, to expect, that any persons will be desirous of bearing the scrip, like Judas, unless they mean, like Judas, to betray.’ P. 108.

On the necessity of obliging persons, in every department of medicine, to submit to an examination before they are permitted to practise, Mr. Ring observes:

'It is but justice to remind our legislators, that there is no law now in force to prevent men or women from practising midwifery without an examination. The college of physicians have, indeed, instituted a new order of practitioners, called licentiates in midwifery. In this order they admit such as voluntarily offer themselves, provided they pass their examination. This ceremony is rather too ridiculous to be passed over without some animadversion. Those who profess the practice, are examined by those who do not.' P. 174.

*An Historical Account of the City of Hereford. With some Remarks on the River Wye, and the Natural and Artificial Beauties contiguous to its Banks, from Brobury to Wilton. Embellished with elegant Views, Plans, &c. By John Price. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Faulder.*

The compiler of this work represents himself as a young literary adventurer; and he modestly declares his readiness to pay a proper attention to the sentiments and advice of the periodical reviewers, 'who generally speak the opinion of the public,' or rather the opinion which they would wish the public to form. He had before appeared as a topographer, by publishing an account of Leominster\*; but the present work is preferable to his former production.

That a considerable town stood near the spot now occupied by Hereford, when the Romans were in possession, not 'of this island' (as Mr. Price too comprehensively remarks), but of the greater part of it, we have just reason to believe; but it was in a ruinous state during the earlier part of the heptarchy; and the Saxon town was not built exactly in the same situation. The latter began to flourish after the erection of the bishopric; but it was nearly destroyed by the Welsh in the reign of Edward the Confessor. It was, however, quickly re-built, and well-fortified for that age.

The history of the city is followed by an account of its present state. Mr. Price censures those writers who have represented the situation as unhealthy; describes the place with accuracy; attributes to it 1361 habitable houses, and 6007 inhabitants; and speaks unfavourably of its trade and manufactures, but expects that great benefit will be derived from the canal which is yet unfinished.

The other contents of the volume are, accounts of the bishopric, of the successive occupants of the see, of the churches and various public buildings, of the eminent persons (very few in number) who were born in this city, of the noblemen who derived titles from it, and of the villas and prospects near the Wye. There is also an Appendix, which contains no interesting matter.

This work will please the cultivators of topography; but it will not be equally pleasing to all, as there are many, we believe, who would wish for a more extended account of an ancient episcopal

city, while others will think the present volume too copious. Our opinion is, that it includes various superfluities; and we would therefore, in case of a new edition, advise the compiler to exercise the arts of retrenchment and compression.

*Biographical Curiosities; or, various Pictures of Human Nature, containing original and authentick Memoirs of Daniel Dancer, Esq. an extraordinary Miser, &c.* 12mo. 3s. 6d. Ridgway. 1797.

We can safely recommend this volume, as an agreeable companion for cursory readers. The lives are selected with judgment, and from the best authorities. They do not all convey an equal portion of instruction; but all abound with curious traits of human character. The principal lives are those of Daniel Dancer, Jonas Hanway, Elwes, Ludwig, Tycho Brahe, Eugene Aram, Napier, Metcalf, Brindley, and La Fontaine. The life of Dancer, we are informed, is here first published. This man was as great a miser as Elwes; but his meanness is rather more disgusting in detail. Elwes was more fortunate in a biographer.

*Gretna Green, or, Cupid's Introduction to the Temple of Hymen; describing many curious Scenes, Love Anecdotes, and Characters, in Prose and Verse: calculated for the Entertainment of both Sexes. By Cupid's Secretary, A. M.* 12mo. 6d. Milne. 1798.

We here find some good advice, mingled with a quantity of vulgar trash, fitted perhaps 'for the entertainment of both sexes' at a country fair.

*Critical and Poetical Works, by J. Penn, Esq.* 8vo. 6s. Boards. Elmsly and Bremner. 1797.

In the critical part of this volume is a translation of Ranieri di Calabigi's letter to count Alfieri, on tragedy, with notes, in which Mr. Penn again defends his proposed improvements of dramatic writing, and refers to his own 'Battle of Eddington' as an example. The poetical part is chiefly composed of translations. The selection from Petrarch has been judiciously made: it contains an example of every species of writing found in that author; and we could wish to see this plan pursued with regard to other poets. We cannot, however, praise the execution; for the sentences are perplexed, and the poetry is harsh and unpleasant. Of Mr. Penn's original pieces, we may affirm, that they display little genius.

*The New Brighton Guide; or, Companion for Young Ladies and Gentlemen to all the Watering-Places in Great Britain. With Notes, Historical, Moral, and Personal.* 8vo. 2s. Symonds.

*A Looking-Glass for the Royal Family: with Documents for British Ladies, and all Foreigners residing in London. Being a Postscript to the new Brighton Guide. By John Williams, whose public Appellation is Anthony Pasquin.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Symonds.

These pamphlets are as profligate and as dull as may be expected from Mr. John Williams, alias Anthony Pasquin.

*Reflections and Observations on the new Brighton Guide; written by A—y P—n, against her Royal Highness the P— of W—. By a Lady. 8vo. 1s. Simmonds.*

Trifling remarks upon a scurrilous libel.

*Oriental Disquisitions: or a Retrospect of the Rise and Progress of the Hydrographical Surveys of Bengal, &c. authenticated by original Letters, interspersed with Remarks upon various Occurrences in that Department of the Service. Most respectfully offered to the Consideration of the Honourable East India Company at large, and to the Public in General. By the Marine Surveyor. 4to. 2s. 6d. Symonds. 1797.*

The writer of this pamphlet was employed on some important surveys in India, and has rendered essential services to the East-India company. These services, according to his account, have not met with adequate reward; a circumstance which we can easily conceive, as his employers were a body of men continually fluctuating. His last resource is to the *comptoir* in Leadenhall-street. Major Rennel is one of the fittest men to estimate the value of the services; and a representation from him might have its due weight with the committee at the head of this trade: but the style of the pamphlet is not calculated to conciliate friendship.

The writer certainly may blame himself for trusting to the plausible professions of the managers or servants of the company. When these men, who were enriching themselves either by contracts, or by the plunder of the natives of India, refused to pay his demand for the expenses incurred in obedience to their orders, he should have refused to obey farther commands. While he acquiesced, it was natural that they should treat him with neglect.

To the future historian of Bengal these disquisitions will be useful; and they may be consulted with advantage by surveyors in India.

*Travels in North America, by M. Cressel. With a Narrative of his Shipwreck and extraordinary Hardships and Sufferings on the Island of Anticosti; and an Account of that Island, and of the Shipwreck of his Majesty's Ship Active, and others. 12mo. 3s. Law. 1797.*

The island of Anticosti, very imperfectly described in our common books of geography, is situated at the entrance of the river St. Laurence, between the parallels of 49 deg. 4 min. and 49 deg. 53 min. 15 sec. N. latitude, and the meridians of 61 deg. 58 min. and 64 deg. 35 min. W. longitude from London. Its circumference is 282 statute miles, its length 129 miles, and its breadth from 32 to 12 miles. It contains 1,699,840 acres of indifferent land, which in general is composed of a light-coloured stone, of a soft crumbling nature, mixed in some parts with clay.

The recent shipwreck of the *Active* (on board of which was lord Dorchester) on this island, suggested to the editor, that the public would be glad to receive an account of a spot hitherto so little known, except to those navigators who sail up the St. Lawrence; and this, he thought, would form an apology for reviving

the narrative of a transaction which happened at so distant a period of time. M. Crespel was a missionary priest, and was wrecked on this island in his passage homeward. The sufferings of him and his companions by fatigue, famine, and the rigour of the season, were of the most shocking kind, and, to the greater part of the crew, fatal. The narrative is interesting, like others of similar disasters, as exhibiting the strength of mental courage in situations which seem to defy human patience and ingenuity. M. Crespel relates his story with an honest simplicity, which obtains credit without the aid of external vouchers.

*Biographical Anecdotes of the Founders of the French Republic, and of other eminent Characters, who have distinguished themselves in the Progress of the Revolution.* 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1797.

We can promise to our readers, whatever their political principles may be, considerable amusement and information from this volume, which contains anecdotes of above one hundred and thirty of the most eminent persons who have 'strutted and fretted their day' upon the grand theatre of French politics. The author appears to have taken great pains to collect materials from the best sources; and, although we perceive some inaccuracies and misstatements, we consider them rather as unavoidable than as reprehensible. 'It is impossible to recollect without horror,' (he says, in his Preface) 'that about one half of the persons mentioned in this volume, have fallen victims to political phrenzy under the guillotine;' and this horror is not lessened (we are obliged to confess), if these accounts are true, by reflecting that very few of that number were possessed of virtues which rendered their fate an object of lamentation. Such a series of unprincipled characters, probably never appeared before, in so short a space, in the management of the affairs of any nation. Prefixed is a very useful document, entitled, 'A Chart of the Proscriptions of Parties in France, from that of the Brissotines in June, 1793, to that of the Royalists in September, 1797.'

*The Quiz.* By a Society of Gentlemen. Vol. I. 12mo. 3s. Sewed. Parsons. 1797.

This work is remarkable only for a charge of plagiarism which it brings against Goldsmith. A French ballad is here printed as the original of Edwin and Angelina. The publication from which it is said to have been taken bears this title: "Les deux Habitants de Lozanne, 1606." We know not what credit the assertion deserves, as we have not seen the French work here mentioned; but we are inclined to doubt the circumstance.



# THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

J U N E, 1798.

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*The Works of Horatio Walpole, Earl of Orford. 5 Vols.  
Royal Quarto. 10l. 10s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.*

A Long life, devoted to literary pursuits, rendered Mr. Walpole an object of curiosity and respect. The present edition of his works will therefore be received with that attention, which abilities so splendid, and attainments so varied and profound, must at all times command. The contents of these volumes are, in general, what he himself selected for publication: we find none of those trifles which misapplied friendship sometimes collects, and to which partiality gives a fancied or a capricious value. All the pieces, indeed, are not equally valuable; but, to complete the picture of the mind, the slighter and more familiar traits are as necessary as the more striking and prominent features; and, in the transitory glance which we have hitherto been able to bestow on five ponderous quartos, we have not found one article or fragment of which we could with patience bear to be deprived. The contents are, in a great measure, new: the tracts formerly published are enriched with many valuable observations, and the maturer sentiments which reflection suggested, after the contests, which they sometimes occasioned, had subsided.

The mind of Mr. Walpole (for we must drop a tide which could do no honour to *him*, and which he bore for so short a period, that the literary world would scarcely recognise the *earl of Orford*) was bold, comprehensive, and original. As he thought for himself, and copied neither ideas nor language, each assumed a peculiarity, which, though sometimes quaint, was rarely inelegant or unpleasing. In classical knowledge, in the regions of taste, and the more rugged paths of antiquity, his attainments were considerable. On the latter subjects he wrote copiously; and he seldom had the ill or good fortune to pass unobserved, or to escape without censure or



opposition. In these situations he conducted himself with a manly dignity, neither disdaining defence, nor retorting with captious petulance. In his replies, a conscious superiority is conspicuous, and a dignity, little calculated for conciliating his antagonists, predominates. In the present collection, we find several of these replies, which we do not remember to have formerly seen : some were indeed published ; but the few copies, printed at Strawberry-hill, could not have a very extensive circulation. That an author so original should be sometimes a mannerist, and sometimes prejudiced, may be easily supposed. We must admit both these imputations ; yet the former is scarcely a fault ; and, to be aware of the latter, is sufficient to guard against its effects.

To the younger readers, the life of Mr. Walpole might have been important ; and we regret the omission more particularly, as he has himself furnished copious materials for it. We had intended to supply this defect from our own recollections, and the volumes before us ; but soon found that it would form a disproportioned, and not a very appropriate, part of our article. It will suffice to observe, that the author of the different works in this collection was the youngest son of sir Robert Walpole, the favourite minister of two successive kings. The chief provision of young Horace arose from the patent places conferred on him by his father. His education was strictly superintended ; and, when he had made a competent progress in his studies, he set out on his travels with the celebrated poet Gray. Their little disagreement it is unnecessary to mention ; but Mr. Walpole's connection with the literati of Paris, at that time established, was continued with their successors, and occasioned the dispute respecting Rousseau, whom he ventured to style ' a mountebank.' He seems to have returned from his travels in 1741, and resided with his father for some years. He first appeared as an author in 1746, when he wrote the *Beauties*, an epistle to Mr. Eckardt the painter, and the humorous proposal of a tax on message cards and notes. From that period his works became more numerous ; and, in 1753, he began his communications to the ' *World* ;' a work to which he contributed some excellent papers. In 1755, he probably retired to Strawberry-hill, which he left only for a short time, in 1766, when he made a visit to Paris. At Strawberry-hill was a printing-press, from which issued his own publications, and those of which he was the editor. During his residence at this delightful spot, which he greatly adorned, uniting the Gothic architecture and ornaments with every modern accommodation, he spent a life of literary leisure, in which, if he did not enjoy perpetual sunshine, the clouds were fugitive, and

the storms slight and transitory. He occasionally experienced the shafts of envy, and the sneers of malignity; but, if he erred, his heart seems never to have been in fault. When the ministry wished to curtail the too lavish national expenditure, Mr. Walpole was ready to give every assistance from his offices, and to sacrifice any part of the income that might be required. Even in the unfortunate application of Chatterton, he seems to have acted with delicacy and uprightness; but to this subject we shall return.

The editor of this collection observes, that

‘ Lord Orford so early as the year 1768 had formed the intention of printing, and soon after actually began, a quarto edition of his works, to which he purposed to add several pieces, both in prose and verse, which he had either not before published or never acknowledged as his own. A first and part of a second volume, printed under his own eye at Strawberry-hill, were already in a state of great forwardness. But his frequent indispositions, and the unimportant light in which, notwithstanding the very flattering reception they had met with from the world, he always persisted in considering his own works, seem to have combined in deterring him from carrying this design into execution.

‘ The completion of this work he entrusted to the editor, to whom he also bequeathed all the notes, additions, and alterations which he had himself collected and arranged. Lord Orford may therefore still be considered as his own editor: every thing that he had selected is faithfully given to the public; and his arrangement, as far as it had gone, is in every respect strictly adhered to. Fidelity to the author's intentions and wishes is indeed the principal merit of an editor; and as no further appeal can now be made to the judgement and taste of the author, the friend to whom he has entrusted the care of his posthumous works has thought proper implicitly to follow the track which he found already prescribed.’  
Vol. i. p. v.

Of the little poetical pieces of Mr. Walpole, the lighter productions of his earlier youth and gayer moments, we shall at present say nothing. He could harrow up the soul in the ‘Mysterious Mother:’ but playful and sprightly poetry was a weapon too light for his nervous arm. In the walk, however, of grave sarcastic humour and ironical pleasantry, he was equaled only by Swift.

To the World, he contributed the numbers 6, 8, 10, 14, 28, 103, 160, 195, and a World extraordinary. The two additional Worlds, which we have not seen in any former collection, are marked by the same pleasantry which adorns his other prose works. They are, however, introductory only to a plan of a new *index expurgatorius*, and, if completed,

might have shown his opinion of many celebrated productions. We regret that the design was not pursued at a maturer period. The character of Polyglott is well conceived; but the outline consists only of a single stroke.

The Letter to a Chinese Philosopher has been already published; and we believe that the inquiry into the age of the long-lived countess of Desmond is in the same predicament. With regard to the age of this lady, we may observe, that it more probably exceeded, than fell short of, 145 years. Her reputed picture, at Windsor, is the portrait of the mother of Rembrandt.

The advertisements to different works, printed at Strawberry-hill, those prefixed to the comedy of the 'Mistakes,' and the catalogues of the collections of Charles I. James II. and the duke of Buckingham, follow. The Catalogue of the Royal and Noble Authors of England, first printed at Strawberry-hill in 1758, is next inserted, with various emendations and additions in different parts.

One of the first additions of importance is a poem by lord Rochford, taken from Harrington's *Nugæ Antiquæ*. With slight alterations it is almost modern; plaintive, tender, and pathetic.—What relates to lord Melcombe's political work we shall transcribe.

It had been well for lord Melcomb's memory, if his fame had been suffered to rest on the tradition of his wit and the evidence of his poetry. The posthumous publication of his own Diary has not enlarged the stock of his reputation, nor reflected more credit on his judgment than on his steadiness. Very sparingly strewed with his brightest talent, wit, the book strangely betrays a complacency in his own versatility, and seems to look back with triumph on the scorn and derision with which his political levity was treated by all to whom he attached or attempted to attach himself. He records conversations in which he alone did not perceive, what every reader must discover, that he was always a dupe; and so blind was his self-love, that he appears to be satisfied with himself, though he relates little but what tended to his disgrace; as if he thought the world would forgive his inconsistencies as easily as he forgave himself. Had he adopted the French title, *confessions*, it would have seemed to imply some kind of penitence: but vain-glory engrossed lord Melcomb; he was determined to raise an altar to himself, and, for want of burnt offerings, lighted the pyre, like a greater author (Rousseau), with his own character.

However, with all its faults and curtailments, the book is valuable. They who have seen much of courts, and are faithful, as lord Melcomb was, in relating facts (whether they mean to palliate or over-charge), still leave much undisguised, which it did not an-

swer their purpose to conceal. Many traces of truth remain in his Diary; and the characters of the actors may be discerned (not much to their advantage), though the book was mangled, in compliment, before it was imparted to the public.' Vol. i. p. 531.

What is said of the earl of Chesterfield demands our applause: yet perhaps Mr. Walpole too highly rates his merits. We must acknowledge the talents of the man whom the gay admired, and the grave respected; but, when from his Letters we begin to think that the whole consisted in the tinsel ornaments of an elegant manner and a ready reply, a little reflection will teach us, that the polish of a weapon is not long formidable, if it possess neither edge nor weight.

' Few men have been born with a brighter flow of parts: few men have bestowed more cultivation on their natural endowments; and the world has seldom been more just in its admiration both of genuine and improved talents. A model yet more rarely beheld, was that of a prince of wits who employed more application on forming a successor, than to perpetuate his own renown—yet, though the peer in question not only laboured by daily precepts to educate his heir, but drew up for his use a code of institution, in which no secret of his doctrine was with-held, he was not only so unfortunate as to behold a total miscarriage of his lectures, but the system itself appeared so superficial, so trifling, and so illaudable, that mankind began to wonder at what they had admired in the preceptor, and to question whether the dictator of such tinsel injunctions had really possessed those brilliant qualifications which had so long maintained him unrivalled on the throne of wit and fashion. Still will the impartial examiner do justice, and distinguish between the legislator of that little fantastic aristocracy which calls itself the great world, and the intrinsic genius of a nobleman who was an ornament to his order, an elegant orator, an useful statesman, a perfect but no servile courtier, and an author whose writings, when separated from his impertinent institutes of education, deserve, for the delicacy of their wit and Horatian irony, to be ranged with the purest classics of the courts of Augustus and Louis quatorze. His papers in Common Sense and The World might have given jealousy to the sensitive Addison; and though they do not rival that original writer's fund of natural humour, they must be allowed to touch with consummate knowledge the affected manners of high life. They are short scenes of genteel comedy, which, when perfect, is the most rare of all productions.

' His papers in recommendation of Johnson's Dictionary were models of that polished elegance which the pedagogue was pretending to ascertain, and which his own style was always heaving to overload with tautology and the most barbarous confusion of tongues. The friendly patronage was returned with ungrateful

rudeness by the proud pedant; and men smiled, without being surprised, at seeing a bear worry his dancing-master.

Even lord Chesterfield's poetical trifles, of which a few specimens remain in some songs and epigrams, were marked by his idolized graces, and with his acknowledged wit. His speeches courted the former, and the latter never forsook him to his latest hours. His entrance into the world was announced by his bon-mots, and his closing lips dropped repartees that sparkled with his juvenile fire.

Such native parts deserved higher application. Lord Chesterfield took no less pains to be the phoenix of fine gentlemen, than Tully did to qualify himself for shining as the first orator, magistrate, and philosopher of Rome. Both succeeded: Tully immortalized his name; lord Chesterfield's reign lasted a little longer than that of a fashionable beauty. His son, like Cromwell's, was content to return to the plough, without authority, and without fame.' Vol. i. P. 535.

This little article is executed with spirit, elegance, and discrimination, and leads us to wish that biography had been more assiduously cultivated at Strawberry-hill. The sketches, relative to the earl of Chatham and lord Lyttelton, are less full; but they are pointed and animated.

In mentioning John Shute, lord Barrington, Mr. Walpole engages with an affectionate warmth in the defence of his father. The accusation was brought forward in the *Biographia Britannica*, transcribed from a MS. paper of judge Foster. The charge is vague, purporting, that sir Robert concurred, or assisted in, the vote of expulsion in consequence of the Harburg lottery, from lord Barrington's former connection with the earl of Sunderland, the minister's enemy and predecessor. We think it refuted, by our author, very satisfactorily; and this pious zeal is a striking proof of a good heart and an amiable disposition.

To lord Clive's memory, Mr. Walpole is not very complaisant; and, in his opinion, earl Nugent did not support, by his subsequent conduct or his later works, the expectations raised by his early spirit, and the poetical beauties of his celebrated ode.

The life of the amiable Christina de Pisan, deserves great commendation. It is written with much delicacy and feeling, and is introduced by the account given from her, in the *Bibliothèque des Romans*, of Montacute, earl of Salisbury. Mr. Walpole attributes the advantageous description of this nobleman's talents to Christina's partiality, and is not inclined to admit him among the noble authors.

In the second volume, we still pursue the collection and arrangement of Horace Walpole himself. The Castle of

Otranto is the first work ; and a truly humorous letter, respecting the mountaineers of Chili (the Patagonian giants), follows. The next tract is the well-known essay on the life and reign of king Richard III. entitled ' Historic Doubts,' first published in 1767 \*. We have often entered a caveat against our being confined within the limits of the opinions of our predecessors ; and, though we admit that a journal, even one so extensive as ours, should, in every important respect, be uniform and consistent, yet we have not scrupled to differ from the sentiments of former journalists, when new discoveries, or maturer reflection, have supported other conclusions. In the present instance, we have less scruple in distrusting the former critic, since some personal considerations seem to have given a bias to his opinions ; a fault highly reprehensible. In going again over this ground, we think Mr. Walpole has satisfactorily replied to all our predecessor's objections, except one, which he admits, and another, where the reply fails : the latter instance relates to Tyrrel ; and the author, by accident or design, does not fully comprehend, or reply to, the arguments of the journalist. Indeed the contemptuous language, a little misplaced,—the frequent recurrence to the subject,—and the strong feelings so forcibly expressed,—show that he did not think the reviewer a weak antagonist. Some meaner opponents are quickly dispatched : ranks are with little ceremony overwhelmed in his career ; but he meets two champions worthy of particular notice ; Mr. Hume, who had considered the Historic Doubts at the end of a criticism in M. d'Yverduin's journal, and Dr. Milles, the late president of the Antiquarian Society. To Mr. Hume, he is apparently respectful ; but it is the respect of Henry of Bolingbroke to Richard II. or that of the duke of Gloucester to his nephews : he can ' bear no rival near his throne.' With Dr. Milles' arguments he contemptuously trifles ; and at his *attempt* he sarcastically sneers. Mr. Masters' ' Remarks,' which have a place also in the Archæologia, are not treated with more respect. The controversy should be again reviewed, as much remains to be considered. In this inquiry, we have indeed engaged with some care ; but the detail is too extensive, and our limits will only allow us to add the conclusion. We think Mr. Walpole's ' Doubts,' *on the whole*, well grounded, and are inclined to acquit Richard of some of his imputed enormities ; but, on several collateral points, the writer has been convicted of haste, and probably of error. He may shelter himself under his title ; but his obstinate defence shows that this was assumed as a protection ; and we think, that, in him, hesitation was conviction ; and *doubts* were ' assurance double sure.' We shall

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\* See Crit. Rev. Vol. XXV. p. 116.

extract a part of the postscript as his *amende honorable*—if, indeed, he intended it as such. We select it as a specimen of his political opinions, which frequently occur in his later additions.

‘ It is afflictive to have lived to find in an age called not only civilized but enlightened, in this eighteenth century, that such horrors, such unparalleled crimes have been displayed on the most conspicuous theatre in Europe, in Paris the rival of Athens and Rome, that I am forced to allow that a multiplicity of crimes, which I had weakly supposed were too manifold and too absurd to have been perpetrated even in a very dark age, and in a northern island not only not commencing to be polished, but enured to barbarous manners, and hardened by long and barbarous civil wars amongst princes and nobility strictly related—Yes, I must now believe that any atrocity may have been attempted or practised by an ambitious prince of the blood aiming at the crown in the fifteenth century. I can believe (I do not say I do) that Richard duke of Gloucester dipped his hand in the blood of the saint-like Henry the sixth, though so revolting and injudicious an act as to excite the indignation of mankind against him. I can now believe that he contrived the death of his own brother Clarence—and I can think it possible, inconceivable as it was, that he aspersed the chastity of his own mother, in order to bastardize the offspring of his eldest brother; for all these extravagant excesses have been exhibited in the compass of five years by a monster, by a royal duke, who has actually surpassed all the guilt imputed to Richard the third, and who, devoid of Richard's courage, has acted his enormities openly, and will leave it impossible to any future writer, however disposed to candour, to entertain one *historic doubt* on the abominable actions of Philip duke of Orleans.

‘ After long plotting the death of his sovereign, a victim as holy as, and infinitely superior in sense and many virtues to, Henry VI. Orleans has dragged that sovereign to the block, and purchased his execution in public, as in public he voted for it.

‘ If to the assassination of a brother (like the supposed complicity of Gloucester to that of Clarence) Orleans has not yet concurred; still, when early in the revolution he was plotting the murder of the king, being warned by an associate that he would be detected, he said, ‘ No; for I will have my (natural) brother the abbé de St. Far stabbed too, and then nobody will suspect me of being concerned in the murder of my own brother.’— So ably can the assassins of an enlightened age refine on and surpass the atrocious deeds of Goths and Barbarians!’ Vol. ii. p. \*251.

• The description of Houghton-hall and its ornaments (now unfortunately no longer the pride and ornaments of Britain), and a sermon on painting, follow. The former has been long since published; the latter is a juvenile work, well adapted to

the place in which it was delivered. The text is taken from the 5th and 6th verses of the 115th psalm; 'Mouths have they, but they speak not; eyes have they, but they see not; neither is there any breath in their nostrils.' Far from being indecent or irreligious, the author endeavours to connect painting with religion, directing its powers to animate the more torpid, and to fix the more insensible adorer.

The next performance is an elegant *petite piece*, styled 'Nature will prevail,' which was performed some years since at the Haymarket theatre. It has no great force of thought, and displays no power of mind; but these, in such circumstances, would perhaps have been misplaced. We expected more from the three Letters on Tragedy, addressed to the author of Braganza; but we were disappointed. The author's apology in the postscript is sufficient. 'He wished to tempt genius out of the beaten road;' and, in his opinion, 'originality is the most captivating evidence of it.'

The 'Thoughts on Comedy' are of the date of 1775: they are not interesting or original. The observations on refinement and its effects, however, are of some importance; and the remark that the art of the comic writer consists in seizing and distinguishing those shades which have rendered man a fictitious animal, without destroying his original composition, deserves a more minute investigation than it has received.

Nothing but the zeal of an affectionate son could have induced Mr. Walpole to defend his father against the idea of his being the author of the 'Testament Politique' imputed to him. He certainly knew that imputed wills have, almost in every age, been fictitious; and the execution of the work is too weak and inartificial to mislead any but the most inattentive readers. We shall not therefore dwell on it, but extract only a short account of the concluding years of Sir Robert Walpole's life.

'Sir Robert Walpole did not leave a sheet of paper of his composition behind him, as all his family know. They had earnestly wished, and at times respectfully pressed him to give some account of his own administration; but neither his health nor inclination permitted it. He resigned his places in February 1742, and was engaged by the secret committee till June of that year, when he went into the country for about three months. He was in town all the succeeding winter, as he was those of 1743 and 44, sitting at home, receiving constant visits from his friends and party, consulted by ministers, and sometimes attending parliament. He passed the two summers of 1743 and 44 at Houghton, the only time in which he had any leisure: in those summers I was not two whole months absent from him, and do declare he never attempted to write any



thing but necessary letters. In one of those summers, I forget which, desirous of amusing him, which his ill health required, I proposed to read to him. He said, What will you read? I answered, as most young men would to a statesman, History, sir. No, child, said he, I know that cannot be true. Judge if he was likely to write history, or a testament politique.

‘ I should have said, that in the winter of 1743 he was much engaged in allaying the heats raised by the partiality of the late king to the troops of Hanover, and was the sole author of composing those animosities. In the winter of 1744, he was still more warmly and zealously employed in alarming the nation on the intended invasion under marshal Saxe; he went to the house of lords, and exerted his former spirit and eloquence with such distinction, that the late prince of Wales, who was present, was struck, and signified to him his pardon of all that had passed between them while my father was minister — as if he had never been essentially serviceable to the house of Hanover before! His health at that time declined greatly; and he could no longer go abroad from the inconvenience of stones in his bladder. In this melancholy state, during the summer of 1744, he read the works of Dr. Sydenham, whom he much esteemed; and Dr. Jurin’s treatise on Mrs. Stephens’s medicine for dissolving the stone being put into his hands, he found a resemblance in it to the opinions of Sydenham. This determined him to try Jurin’s preparation. He was brought to town with great difficulty, took Jurin’s medicine, and was killed by it in March 1745.’ Vol. ii. p. 337.

The motto to this piece is well-chosen:

‘ Ergo age, care pater, cervici imponere nostræ:  
Ipse subibo humeris; nec me labor iste gravabit.’

The Life of the Rev. Mr. Thomas Baker, of St. John’s college, Cambridge, follows: it was written in 1778. Mr. Baker was a man of great modesty, ability, and mildness. When he was ejected from his college, and deprived of his living, for his repugnance to the violation of his oath, neither impatience nor complaint sullied his language; and christian charity adorned every part of his conduct. The Life is written with judgment and propriety. The introductory paragraphs we shall transcribe.

‘ The deep or extensive learning of a man of letters is but a barren field for biography. His notions are speculation; his adventures, enquiry. If his studies fermented or consolidated into compositions, the history of his life commonly proves but a register of the squabbles occasioned by his works, of the patrons he flattered, of the preferments he obtained or missed. The dates of his publications and their editions form the outlines of his story; and frequently the plans or projects of works he meditated are taken to

aid the account; the day of his death is scrupulously ascertained, —and thus, to compose the life of a man who did very little, his biographer acquaints us with what he did not do, and when he ceased to do any thing.

‘Nor are authors such benefactors to the world, that the trifling incidents of their lives deserve to be recorded. The most shining of the class have not been the most useful members of the community. If Newton unravelled some arcana of nature, and exalted our ideas of the Divinity by the investigation of his works; what benefactions has Homer or Virgil conferred on mankind but a fund of harmonious amusement? Barren literati, who produce nothing, are innocent drones, whom the world has been so kind as to agree to respect for having entertained themselves gravely in the manner most agreeable to their taste. When they have devoured libraries, they are supposed to be prodigies of knowledge, though they are but walking or temporary dictionaries. Yet the republic of letters, confining its own honours to its own corporation, fondly decrees the distinction of biography to most of its active, and to some of its mute members.’ Vol. ii. p. 341.

Mr. Walpole’s account of his ‘conduct, relative to the places he held under the government, and towards ministers,’ adds greatly to his credit as a patriot, and as a man. He speaks indeed the language of modern place-men, and considers his offices as freeholds; but he was more disinterested than they are, in offering to relinquish what the wants of the nation might require, and disdaining to claim a recompense for an annual sum, which by accident was represented beyond the average income.

The account of Strawberry-hill, with a description of the furniture, pictures, curiosities, &c. was printed in 1784; but its circulation was limited, as only 200 copies were taken off. It is splendidly adorned with engravings; and is, on the whole, interesting. But some degree of egotism may seem to have dictated this description; and the apparent vanity of the display lessens the pleasure which we feel.

‘Upon the whole, some transient pleasure may even hereafter arise to the peruser of this catalogue. To others it may afford another kind of satisfaction, that of criticism. In a house affecting not only obsolete architecture, but pretending to an observance of the *costume* even in the furniture, the mixture of modern portraits, and French porcelaine, and Greek and Roman sculpture, may seem heterogeneous. In truth, I did not mean to make my house so Gothic as to exclude convenience, and modern refinements in luxury. The designs of the inside and outside are strictly ancient, but the decorations are modern. Would our ancestors, before the reformation of architecture, not have deposited in their gloomy castles antique statues and fine pictures, beautiful vases and orna-

mental china, if they had possessed them? — But I do not mean to defend by argument a small capricious house. It was built to please my own taste, and in some degree to realize my own visions. I have specified what it contains: could I describe the gay but tranquil scene where it stands, and add the beauty of the landscape to the romantic cast of the mansion, it would raise more pleasing sensations than a dry list of curiosities can excite: at least the prospect would recall the good humour of those who might be disposed to condemn the fantastic fabric, and to think it a very proper habitation of, as it was the scene that inspired, the author of the *Castle of Otranto*.' Vol. ii. p. 397.

The short essay on modern gardening, which we may again have occasion to notice, and the counter-address on the dismissal of general Conway, already published, conclude the volume.

The third volume consists of the Anecdotes of Painting, with the original plates in excellent preservation. The additions furnish no particular subject of remark. The fourth and fifth volumes are almost wholly new, and will therefore require a more particular survey.

*(To be continued.)*

*Memoirs of the Life and Administration of Sir Robert Walpole, Earl of Orford. With original Correspondence and authentic Papers, never before published. By William Coxe, M. A. &c. 3 Vols. 4to. 3s. 15s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

FROM the political and financial abilities of sir Robert Walpole, and the long duration of his sway in the British cabinet, we may fairly presume, that an account of his administration, prepared from the best materials, will interest the generality of readers. For want of ample documents, historians have fallen into various errors, in the mention of those incidents and transactions which distinguished the course of his government. But Mr. Coxe has been enabled, by the examination of a multiplicity of papers, to correct mis-statements, ascertain the motives of action, and throw new light upon a period of considerable importance.

The first volume of this work consists of memoirs: the second and third comprehend letters written by Walpole and many other persons of distinction, from the year 1700 to 1745. Some of these epistles might properly have been omitted as trivial and useless.

The year of the birth of Walpole has been a subject of dispute; but Mr. Coxe has settled the point by producing a domestic register of the births of all the children of Robert and Mary Walpole (the parents of the minister), from which it

appears that he was born at Houghton in August 1676, of an ancient family, which took its name from the village of Walpole in Norfolk. Having imbibed the rudiments of learning at Maffingham, he was sent to Eton school, whence he was removed to King's college, Cambridge. Being a younger brother, he was intended for the church; but, accidentally becoming heir, he relinquished his academical studies, and assisted his father in the management of his estate. In his twenty-fourth year, he entered into the matrimonial state, making choice of the daughter of a citizen of London. He soon after lost his father, whom he succeeded as representative of the borough of Castle-Rising.

'On entering into parliament' (says his biographer), 'a due diffidence of his own powers repressed his zeal; and he formed a resolution not to speak until he had attained more experience, and some degree of parliamentary knowledge: but his prudence and caution were overcome by the more powerful passion of emulation,

'During his continuance at Eton, he had been the rival of St. John, who was two years younger than himself. The parts of St. John were more lively and brilliant; those of Walpole more steady and solid. Walpole was industrious and diligent, because his talents required application. St. John was negligent, because his quickness of apprehension rendered less labour necessary. When both came into public life, this emulation did not cease; and as they took different parties, opposition kindled their zeal. St. John soon distinguished himself in the house of commons, and became an eloquent debater; repeated encomiums bestowed on his rival, roused the ardour of Walpole, and induced him to commence speaker sooner than he at first intended. It does not, however, appear at what time, or on what occasion, he first spoke in the house of commons; all that is known on that subject is, that the first time he rose, he was confused and embarrassed, and did not seem to realize those expectations which his friends had fondly conceived. At the same time, another member made a studied speech, which was much admired. At the end of the debate, some persons casting ridicule on Walpole as an indifferent orator, and expressing their approbation on the maiden speech made by the other member, Arthur Mainwaring, who was present, observed in reply, 'You may applaud the one, and ridicule the other, as much as you please, but depend upon it, that the spruce gentleman who made the set speech will never improve, and that Walpole will in time become an excellent speaker.' The prediction of Mainwaring was soon verified.' Vol. i. p. 14.

He was soon noticed by the whig leaders, as a man of promising talents; and the lord-treasurer Godolphin, who at length entered into an union with that party, honoured him with his patronage. After he had been seven years in par-

liament, he was appointed secretary at war. While he held that office, he acted (in 1710) as one of the managers of Sacheverel's impeachment. As the doctrines which he condemned on that occasion seem to be again coming into vogue, we will extract the passage which relates to this subject.

‘ It fell to his share to support the first article of the charge; that Sacheverel had suggested and maintained, “ That the necessary means used to bring about the happy revolution, were odious and unjustifiable; that his late majesty, in his declaration, disclaimed the least imputation of resistance, and that to impute resistance to the said revolution, was to cast black and odious colours upon his late majesty and the said revolution.” ’

‘ On this delicate subject, which it is so difficult to define and restrain within the proper bounds, while the doctrine of resistance is allowed, in cases of extreme necessity, he spoke with equal precision, moderation, and energy, and drew the happy medium between the extremes of licentiousness and rational liberty; between a just opposition to arbitrary measures, and a due submission to a free and well regulated government. While he reprobated, in the strongest terms, the doctrines of divine indefeasible right, and passive obedience, he by no means encouraged, even in the slightest degree, any vague notions of resistance in undetermined cases, or upon trivial motives; but established hereditary right as the essence of the British constitution, never to be transgressed, except in such instances as justified the revolution.’ Vol. i. p. 24.

By the impeachment of the tory divine, the whigs greatly injured themselves; and their disgrace quickly followed. Having exposed the imprudence of the accusing party, Mr. Coxe makes the following remark :

‘ The fatal and mischievous consequences which resulted from the trial of Sacheverel, had a permanent effect on the future conduct of Walpole, when he was afterwards placed at the head of administration. It infused into him an aversion and horror at any interposition in the affairs of the church, and led him to assume, occasionally, a line of conduct which appeared to militate against those principles of general toleration, to which he was naturally inclined.’ Vol. i. p. 25.

This observation reflects no credit on Walpole, as it implies that he avoided the interposition only because he was apprehensive that it might shake the fabric of his power.

Of the correspondence which passed at this critical time between Walpole and some of his associates,

‘ a sufficient part’ (says our author) ‘ is still preserved to do honour to the persons who were engaged in it, to throw a new light over the transactions of that period, and to illustrate the conduct of the ministers on that memorable occasion. It shews that their fall

was owing no less to their own disunion, than to the intrigues of Mrs. Masham and Harley, and the opposition of the tories. It plainly appears to have been the opinion of Walpole, that more active and decisive measures should have been pursued before the removal of Sunderland. He lamented the division of the ministry, the jealousy and coldness of Godolphin, who would not make any attempt to save Sunderland; he conjectured that his disgrace would be followed by the dismissal of Godolphin and Marlborough, which they did not foresee, or else their disinclination to Sunderland overcame the apprehensions which they ought to have entertained for their own safety.' Vol. i. p. 30.

On the change of the ministry, it appears that Walpole might have continued in office, if he had been willing to desert the whigs. But he declined the offers of Harley, and voted against the court till he was expelled from the house of commons, on the accusation of having received a bribe when secretary at war; a charge which Mr. Coxe has laboured, though not with complete success, to refute.

During his imprisonment for this offence, a song was written 'on the jewel in the Tower;' and his wife was so pleased with this comparison, and with the prediction of his fame and power, that she would frequently sing the ballad in question, though it was a poor piece, and was only recommended to her by a mean spirit of adulation. It did not merit a place in the work which we are reviewing.

Though the corporation of Lynn re-chose him a member, the commons would not suffer him to sit again in the existing parliament. In the mean time, he exerted himself in healing the divisions of the whigs, in whose cause he was also a writer.

In the next parliament, he increased his reputation as a speaker. On the accession of the house of Hanover, his zeal for the interest of that family procured him, first, the appointment of paymaster of the army, and, afterwards, the post of chief director of the treasury. Thus invested with power, he exercised it with rigour against the rebel prisoners, and made an ill use of it in promoting the act for septennial parliaments. In both these points he is vindicated by Mr. Coxe; but we cannot consider his conduct in either respect as honourable to his character.

It has been supposed that Walpole counter-acted the wishes of George I. in the affair of Bremen and Verden; but our author acknowledges, that this minister approved, in the strongest manner, the proposed acquisition of those territories. This compliance, however, did not establish his interest at court; and the influence of courtly intrigues constrained him to resign. When he requested an audience for that purpose,

'the king was extremely surprised. He refused to accept his

resignation, expressed a high sense of his services in the kindest and strongest terms; declared that he had no thoughts of parting with so faithful a counsellor; intreated him not to retire, and replaced the seals in his hat. To this Walpole replied, with no less concern than firmness, that however well inclined he might be to obey his majesty's commands, yet it would be impossible to serve him faithfully with those ministers to whom he had lately given his favour. 'They will propose to me,' he said, 'both as chancellor of the exchequer, and in parliament, such things, that if I agree to support them, my credit and reputation will be lost; and if I disapprove or oppose them, I must forfeit your majesty's favour. For I, in my station, though not the author, must be answerable to my king and to my country for all the measures which may be adopted by administration.' At the conclusion of these words, he again laid the seals upon the table; the king returned them not less than ten times, and when the minister as often replaced them on the table, he gave up the struggle, and reluctantly accepted his resignation, expressing great concern and much resentment at his determined perseverance. At the conclusion of this affecting scene, Walpole came into the adjoining apartment, and those who were present witnessed the anguish of his countenance, and observed that his eyes were suffused with tears. Those who immediately entered into the closet, found the king no less disturbed and agitated.' Vol. i. p. 107.

Mr. Coxe is not so partial to Walpole as to commend his conduct in opposing the measures of the court, after his retreat from power, without regard to their nature or their merits. He properly admits, that the opposing senator was actuated by a spirit of party rather than by patriotism.

An accurate and sometimes new account is given of the debates in which Walpole bore a part, both before and after his resignation. The South-sea imposture is developed with perspicuity; and his concern in remedying the disorder which it produced, is fairly stated. Before this bubble burst, he had been re-appointed paymaster of the forces; and he was at length re-instated in the office of first lord of the treasury.

In speaking of some commercial regulations which the premier now established, Mr. Coxe affirms, that

'none of the English historians have paid a due tribute of applause to these beneficial exertions of ministerial capacity. While some of them enter, with a tedious minuteness, into a detail of foreign transactions, and echo from one to the other the never-failing topic of Hanoverian influence; while they dwell with malignant pleasure on those parts of his conduct, which, in their opinion, prove the ascendancy of influence and corruption; while they repeat the speeches and reproaches of opposition, they suffer these salutary regulations, which ought to render the name of Walpole dear to every Englishman, to be principally confined to books of rates

and taxes, and only to be mentioned by commercial writers.' Vol. i. p. 164.

This charge is not altogether well-founded; for even those historians who are the most unfriendly to the ministerial character of Walpole, readily admit his pretensions to praise on the ground of commercial improvement.

His financial abilities, his zeal and activity in baffling the schemes of the non-jurors, and his general knowledge of affairs, so firmly fixed his interest at court, that he ventured to remonstrate freely against the foreign politics of his sovereign.

\* The king having requested 200,000*l.* for the purpose of opposing the efforts of the czar, to dethrone the king of Sweden, and place the duke of Holstein on the throne, Townshend strenuously exhorted Walpole to procure that sum. In reply, Walpole declared that the 200,000*l.* was reserved for the king's expences, if he staid at Hanover later than Christmas. He must, therefore, either return to England sooner than he had proposed, or the interference in the Swedish affairs must be relinquished. Walpole at the same time represented his objections to that interference in the strongest terms; explained his own conduct, and the great principle by which he appears to have been uniformly directed, which was to be economical of the public money, but to spare no expence when the security of his country was at stake; to avoid foreign entanglements, not to be precipitate in contracting new engagements; to feel the pulse of the nation before any measure of consequence was adopted, and to proceed with due caution. He concluded by observing, that the prosecution of a new war would effectually prevent the adoption of all schemes for the ease of the people and the benefit of trade. The king, so far from being displeased with this freedom, was convinced by his arguments, adopted his views, and declared his resolution of implicitly following the advice of his British cabinet: he spoke of him in the highest terms of approbation, and when Townshend shewed his answer to that letter, and asked whether he had not made too many compliments, observed, *that was impossible, for Walpole never had his equal in business.*' Vol. i. p. 183.

The minister's concurrence in the act which favoured the exiled Bolingbroke has produced these remarks:

\* It is difficult to render the conduct of Walpole consistent with that prudence by which he was commonly directed, or to justify the motives which induced him to promote an act that enabled Bolingbroke to settle in England, and to harass his administration. He had known Bolingbroke from his early youth; he appreciated his talents, was aware of his insinuating manners and restless temper, was not ignorant, that while he was paying the most servile court to the whigs, he had been caballing with the tories; was convinced that no dependence



could be placed on his word, and must have been conscious that nothing less than a full restoration would satisfy a man of his aspiring ambition.

‘ But the apparent inconsistency and imprudence of Walpole’s conduct, are sufficiently accounted for from the secret history of this whole transaction; from which it appears, that he did not act from his own impulse, but was gradually led to promote a measure, which he did not approve. We have the authority of sir Robert Walpole himself, that the restoration of lord Bolingbroke was the work of the duchess of Kendal, and that it was in obedience to the express commands of the king, that he supported the act. Bolingbroke, continually disappointed in his hopes, had recourse to a surer and more powerful channel of favour. He gained the duchess of Kendal by a present of 11,000*l.* and obtained a promise to use her influence over the king for the purpose of forwarding his complete restoration. Harcourt, with her co-operation, seems principally to have managed this delicate business; and as at this period Townshend was reconciled to the duchess of Kendal, it was probably owing to her interest that he was induced to move the king to grant a pardon to Bolingbroke, and even to give him still farther hopes.

‘ In this juncture, Townshend removed to Hanover, and left to Walpole the management of the business. Walpole having sounded his friends, and the advocates of government, found that strong objections were made to the restoration of so obnoxious a person, and being himself inclined to the same opinion, he, with his usual frankness and candour, represented the difficulties not only to Townshend, but even to Bolingbroke himself, and declined entering into any farther engagements. Bolingbroke, who well understood the temper of parties, soon perceived that insuperable obstacles were opposed to his complete restoration. He thought fit, therefore, to temporize, and requested the reversal of part of the bill of attainder, without obtaining his seat in the house of lords. This request, strongly enforced by the duchess of Kendal, was particularly recommended by the king to Walpole, in a most authoritative manner. The minister could not venture to disobey the express commands of the king; could not withstand the importunities of the duchess, who had recently assisted in driving Carteret and Cadogan from the helm; was anxious to oblige lord Harcourt, with whom he then lived in habits of the strictest intimacy, and was overcome by the unceasing solicitations of Bolingbroke, and softened by his professions of inviolable devotion.’ Vol. i. p. 209.

The public history of the patent granted to Wood for a copper coinage, is followed by a statement of particulars not generally known. The duchess of Kendal, it seems, sold the patent to Wood; and, though sir Robert remonstrated against

the grant, he did not long resist it. But the chancellor of Ireland (lord Middleton) warmly opposed the scheme, and encouraged the disgust of the people to it. The duke of Grafton, then lord-lieutenant, had not the skill or address which the conjuncture required: Walpole did not act with his usual prudence and circumspection; and lord Carteret at first fomented the disturbances, but afterwards promoted the obnoxious currency; which, however, by the influence of the chancellor's party, was finally exploded.

When commotions arose in Scotland in 1725, Walpole is said to have 'tempered the violent orders sent from Hanover'; and the spirit and zeal of the earl of Ilay were exerted with such success, that from this period he became the chief adviser of sir Robert in the management of the affairs of North-Britain.

Those historians and politicians who have censured the treaty of Hanover, are accused by Mr. Coxe of a misconception of the motives of that agreement, in which, he thinks, the interests of Great-Britain were consulted to the prejudice of the electorate. But, with all his labour, he has not fully demonstrated this point.

In the last year of the reign of George I. lord Bolingbroke, we are informed, made an attempt to supplant Walpole, in concert with the duchess of Kendal. The following anecdotes respecting this attempt may amuse the reader. Bolingbroke

'drew up a long memorial, full of invectives against the minister, which the duchess of Kendal secretly delivered to the king. After stating in various instances the misconduct of administration, he concluded, by requesting an audience, and undertook to demonstrate that the kingdom must inevitably be ruined, should sir Robert Walpole continue at the head of the treasury. The king put this memorial into the hands of the minister, who concluded, that the person who conveyed it, could not be ignorant of the contents: after some inquiry, he traced it to the duchess of Kendal, who, on being interrogated, acknowledged that she had delivered it, and attempted to justify her conduct by frivolous excuses. Walpole, in reply, only entreated her as a favour, to second the instances of Bolingbroke, and to procure for him that audience, which he so earnestly solicited. The duchess, after several endeavours to excuse herself, promised compliance; and at a proper interval, Walpole besought the king to grant an audience to Bolingbroke; and urged the propriety, by observing, that if this request was rejected, much clamour would be raised against him for keeping the king to himself, and for permitting none to approach his person who might tell unwelcome truths.

The king declined complying in so positive a manner, that Walpole could not venture to press it any farther in person; but waited on the duchess to renew his application. He found lady Bo-

lingbroke on a visit, and when she retired, was informed, that the king was unwilling to admit Bolingbroke, on a supposition that it would make him uneasy. Walpole repeated his earnest entreaties, and declared that he could not be easy, until the audience was granted. These pressing solicitations finally had their effect; and Bolingbroke was admitted into the closet.

‘ While Walpole was attending in an adjoining apartment, lord Lechmere came, and demanded admission for the signature of papers, which he had brought as chancellor of the duchy of Cornwall. He was informed that Bolingbroke was with the king, and that Walpole was also waiting. In the midst of his surprise, Bolingbroke coming out, Lechmere instantly rushed into the closet, and without making any apology, or entering upon his own business, burst out into the most violent invectives against Walpole, whom he reviled as not contented with doing mischief himself, but had introduced one who was, if possible, worse than himself, to be his assistant. The king, delighted with this mistake, calmly asked him, if he would undertake the office of prime minister. Lechmere made no reply, but continued pouring forth his invectives, and finally departed without having offered any of the papers to sign. Walpole found the king so highly diverted and occupied with this incident, that it was some time before he had an opportunity of inquiring the subject of Bolingbroke’s conversation. The king slightly answered, “*Bagatelles, bagatelles.*” Vol. i. p. 264.

The account of Walpole’s administration in this reign is concluded with a plausible vindication of Sophia, the wife of George I. who was imprisoned for life on suspicion of adultery.

‘ Those who exculpate Sophia, assert either that a common visit was construed into an act of criminality; or that the countess of Platen, at a late hour, summoned count Konigsmark in the name of the princess, though without her connivance; that on being introduced, Sophia was surprised at his intrusion; that on quitting the apartment, he was discovered by Ernest Augustus, whom the countess had placed in the gallery, and was instantly assassinated by persons whom she had suborned for that purpose.

‘ It is impossible, at this distance of time, to discover and trace the circumstances of this mysterious transaction, on which no person at the court of Hanover durst at that time deliver his opinion; but the sudden murder of count Konigsmark may be urged as a corroboration of this statement; for had his guilt, and that of Sophia been unequivocal, would he not have been arrested and brought to a trial for the purpose of proving their connection, and confronting him with the unfortunate princess?

‘ Many persons of credit at Hanover have not scrupled, since the death of Ernest Augustus and George the first, to express their belief that the imputation cast on Sophia was false and unjust. It is

also reported, that her husband having made an offer of reconciliation, she gave this noble and disdainful answer of haughty virtue, unconscious of stain: "If what I am accused of is true, I am unworthy of his bed; and if my accusation is false, he is unworthy of me. I will not accept his offers."

'George the second, who doated on his mother, was fully convinced of her innocence. He once made an attempt to see her, and even crossed the Aller on horseback, opposite to the castle, but was prevented from having an interview with her by the baron de Bulow, to whose care the elector, her husband, had committed her. Had she survived his accession, he intended to restore her to liberty, and to acknowledge her as queen dowager.' Vol. i. p. 268.

It is added, that queen Caroline was a firm believer of the innocence of Sophia, and that Walpole was equally convinced of it.

(To be continued.)

*Poems, by Joseph Fawcett. To which are added, Civilised War, before published under the Title of the Art of War, with considerable Alterations; and the Art of Poetry, according to the latest Improvements, with Additions. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1798.*

ON the first appearance of Mr. Fawcett's *Art of War*\*, we expressed our pleasure at announcing a poem 'of which the end is so laudable, and the execution so striking.' We admired the strength of his conceptions and of his language; but we remarked that his boldness often produced conceits or extravagance. The same faults are observable in Mr. Fawcett's smaller poems; and his forced thoughts appear more preposterous as the subjects are comparatively trifling. We select, as the most striking example, a stanza from the elegy entitled *Mortality and Hope*.

'Can this short span of being be his all?  
Must minds whose wishes shoot beyond the tomb,  
Dash their bruised frames against Confinement's wall,  
And droop, the prisoners of so scant a room?' p. 53.

There is something ridiculous in the following personification;

'Oft has Eclipse his raven shadow thrown,  
Where orient Health display'd her freshest ray.' p. 12:

In p. 45. the writer calls the church bells 'metal tongues,' pro-

\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XIV. p. 159.

bably in allusion to the phrase of Shakspeare: but this becomes incongruous when he says,

‘ Ye metal tongues, swing slow with mournful toll.’

A curious blunder occurs in the *Elegy on Disappointed Love*. We quote a passage which precedes it, as containing one of the finest lines in the volume.

‘ He heard not him whose words essayed to save,  
Or gloomy smiled at comfort’s idle breath;  
Loathing his food and longing for his grave,  
*He nurs’d the dreadful appetite of death.*

Shy and unfocial was he wont to roam,  
With careless hand attir’d, in crazy mood;  
All heedless, or of hours, or friends, or home,  
The polish’d savage of the shaggy wood.

Unwarn’d by dewy night’s descending shade,  
(Ah! ’tis not sickness hardy sorrow fears!)  
Unwearied with his way, the rambler strayed,  
And liv’d on misery’s bitter meat, his tears.’ P. 24.

We have dwelt upon Mr. Fawcett’s faults; but it must not therefore be supposed that we are insensible to his merits. The genius which produced the *Art of War* will not be cramped within the limits of an elegy or a sonnet. Yet, in all his poems, there are the marks of no common mind; and, what he himself justly regards as their best praise, they all inculcate the same honest and unadulterated principles. As a favourable specimen of the smaller poems, we will give some extracts from that ‘on the general Complacency with which Infants are contemplated.’ The poet asks,

‘ Whence the delight, sweet Infancy,  
That each fond eye derives from thee?’ P. 121.

The answer is,

‘ I blush to tell the reason why;  
I blush for frail Humanity.  
So oft the sense that time supplies  
Proves but capacity of vice;  
A power to love and to believe  
Th’ illusions that to wrong deceive;  
A mental light that basely shines,  
To guide the steps of dark designs;  
A miner’s lamp, low paths to light,  
Deeds under ground, the works of night;  
We turn from vice-encumber’d sense,  
To smile on empty innocence.’ P. 121.

‘ This scene of things, indignant, scan,  
See Man, throughout, the pest of Man!

On yon cane-planted clustering shores,  
Round which the western billow roars,  
That whip, whose lash so loud resounds,  
'Tis Man that lifts, 'tis Man it wounds!  
The wretch in that dark room who pines,  
'Tis not disease, 'tis Man-confiners!  
Those corsees yonder plain that strew,  
'Twas Man, and not the tiger, slew!  
Fir'd cities blacken heaven with smoke;  
'Twas Man's red light'ning dealt the stroke.' P. 122.

Having detailed the various vices of manhood, and contrasted them with the negative qualities of infancy, he thus concludes :

' For this, each eye, sweet Infancy,  
Delights to bend its look on thee!  
Since stronger souls their strength employ,  
And strain their powers but to destroy;  
Complacence turns her view from thence  
To feebleness and innocence.  
Since vigorous falcons tyrants are,  
The hovering terror of the air;  
Since eagles dip their beaks in blood,  
And make their meal on throbbing food;  
From them the falling eye of Love  
Drops to the weak, but harmless dove.

It glads Affection's soul to see  
The sharers of her smile agree:  
And he whose heart from blot is clear,  
And to whose bosom both are dear,  
(What seldom long remain allied,  
What life's fell scenes too soon divide,)  
Is pleas'd to catch, while yet he can,  
United, innocence and man.' P. 127.

In one piece only, has the author found full scope for his talents: it is in the Fragment to the Sun. Thus he addresses that luminary :

' Thou dazzling ball! vast universe of flame!  
Idol sublime! Error's most glorious god!  
Whose peerless splendours plead in the excuse  
Of him that worships thee, and shine away  
The sin of pagan knees! whose awful orb,  
Though Truth informs my more enlightened creed,  
Almost entices my o'er-ravished heart  
To turn idolator, and tempts my mouth  
To kiss my hand before thee. Nature's pride!  
Of matter most magnificent display!  
Bright masterpiece of dread Omnipotence!

Ocean of splendour! wond'rous world of light!

Thy sweet return my kindled lays salute.' P. 149.

We recognise here the hand that has so strongly depicted the horrors of civilised war.

*Elements of Algebra, by Leonard Euler. Translated from the French, with the critical and historical Notes of M. Bernoulli. To which are added the Additions of M. de la Grange; some original Notes by the Translator; Memoirs of the Life of Euler, with an Estimate of his Character; and a Praxis to the whole Work, consisting of above two hundred Examples. 2 Vols. 8vo. 16s. Boards. Johnson. 1797.*

THE widely-extended and merited reputation of Euler stamps a value upon every production of his pen; and, from one of the most distinguished masters of the analytic art, we naturally expect the best explanation of those Elements, on which he laid the foundation of his fame. Yet there are many instances which prove, that the best practitioner in an art is not always the best theorist, and that the theoretical man is not always successful in reducing his rules to practice. The man to whom this country is indebted for so many improvements in canal navigation, was not happy in making other persons comprehend the means by which he proposed to effect his various purposes; and another of our countrymen, who perhaps vied with Euler himself for the supremacy in mathematics, involved his writings in such obscurity, that very few persons are supposed to have read them; and his discoveries, repeatedly stolen from him, have raised the fame of inferior mathematicians. We must therefore, in reviewing a work like the present, be cautious, lest the very character of the writer should dazzle us; and, as it is necessary that the first elements of every science should be explained with the utmost clearness, and founded on the strictest reasoning, we must carefully examine the rules laid down by one, whose errors might have such an extensive influence.

It is said in the Preface, that the reader

'will be highly pleased . . . . if we mistake not, with the wonderful simplicity and clearness of this great author's manner. He will discover no chasm in the reasoning, no link broken or deficient in the concatenation of his ideas, and nothing taken for granted, that has not been previously proved; defects which, in other writers, so often impede the progress of beginners, and discourage them from prosecuting their studies: but here, all is lumipous, easy, and obvious.' Vol. i. p. v.

With pleasure we subscribe to the former part of the passage above quoted; and, if we cannot wholly assent to the latter part, we think it the more necessary to point out a few defects, that beginners may not, from the accustomed habit of relying on authority, take things for granted, which have not been strictly proved. In the investigation of two of the subjects in the work before us, beginners find great difficulty, and the un-initiated some opportunities for mirth. We allude to the doctrine of positive and negative signs, and that of infinity. We shall examine our author's mode of treating these doctrines; and our readers will judge whether it is free from the usual obscurity and contradictions of other writers.

Positive and negative numbers are explained by the usual metaphor of book-debts.

'As negative numbers may be considered as debts, because positive numbers represent real possessions, we may say that negative numbers are less than nothing. Thus, when a man has nothing in the world, and even owes 50 crowns, it is certain that he has 50 crowns less than nothing; for if any one were to make him a present of 50 crowns to pay his debts, he would still be only at the point nothing, though really richer than before.

'In the same manner therefore as positive numbers are incontestably greater than nothing, negative numbers are less than nothing. Now we obtain positive numbers by adding 1 to 0, that is to say, to nothing; and by continuing always to increase thus from unity. This is the origin of the series of numbers called natural numbers; the following are the leading terms of this series:

0, + 1, + 2, + 3, + 4, + 5, + 6, + 7, + 8, + 9, + 10,  
and so on to infinity.

'But if instead of continuing this series by successive additions, we continued it in the opposite direction, by perpetually subtracting unity, we should have the series of negative numbers:

0, -1, -2, -3, -4, -5, -6, -7, -8, -9, -10,  
and so on to infinity.' Vol. i. P. 7.

The beginner will find it very difficult to understand what is meant 'by perpetually subtracting unity;' for, at the first step, how is he to take away one from nothing?

The next point at which the learner stumbles, is the change of signs in multiplication. The change in multiplying numbers, with dissimilar signs, having been settled upon the principle of book-debts, the next step—the change in multiplying negative numbers together—is thus proved.

'It remains to resolve the case in which — is multiplied by —; or, for example,  $-a$  by  $-b$ . It is evident, at first sight, with regard to the letters, that the product will be  $ab$ ; but it is doubtful



whether the sign  $+$ , or the sign  $-$ , is to be placed before the product; all we know is, that it must be one or the other of these signs. Now I say that it cannot be the sign  $-$ : for  $-a$  by  $+b$  gives  $-ab$ , and  $-a$  by  $-b$  cannot produce the same result as  $-a$  by  $+b$ ; but must produce a contrary result, that is to say,  $+ab$ ; consequently we have the following rule:  $-$  multiplied by  $-$  produces  $+$ , in the same manner as  $+$  multiplied by  $+$ .' Vol. i. p. 13.

Here, where it is most wanted, our author throws aside his comparison of book-debts; and we see nothing but assertion instead of proof, when he says that ' $-a$  by  $-b$ ,' cannot produce the same result as ' $-a$  by  $+b$ .' The translator seems aware of this 'chasm in the reasoning;' for he attempts to explain this change of signs in an obscure note; on the conclusion of which our readers may exercise their sagacity.

'Hence it appears, that the taking of a negative quantity negatively destroys the very property of negation, and is the conversion of negative into positive numbers.' Vol. ii. 496.

Mathematicians are deemed strict reasoners; but we fear that the following passages will not add to their reputation.

'Now, we before remarked, that positive numbers are all greater than nothing, or 0, and that negative numbers are all less than nothing, or 0; so that whatever exceeds 0, is expressed by positive numbers, and whatever is less than 0, is expressed by negative numbers. The square roots of negative numbers, therefore, are neither greater nor less than nothing. We cannot say however, that they are 0; for 0 multiplied by 0 produces 0, and consequently does not give a negative number.' Vol. i. p. 65.

'Those numbers are usually called imaginary quantities, because they exist merely in the imagination.

'All such expressions, as  $\sqrt{-1}$ ,  $\sqrt{-2}$ ,  $\sqrt{-3}$ ,  $\sqrt{-4}$ , &c. are consequently impossible, or imaginary numbers, since they represent roots of negative quantities: and of such numbers we may truly assert, that they are neither nothing, nor greater than nothing, nor less than nothing; which necessarily constitutes them imaginary, or impossible.

'But notwithstanding all this, these numbers present themselves to the mind; they exist in our imagination, and we still have a sufficient idea of them; since we know that by  $\sqrt{-4}$ , is meant a number which, multiplied by itself, produces  $-4$ . For this reason also, nothing prevents us from making use of these imaginary numbers, and employing them in calculation.' Vol. i. p. 65.

The nature of these numbers having been thus *satisfactorily explained*, their utility is a natural object of curiosity.

‘It remains for us to remove any doubt which may be entertained concerning the utility of the numbers of which we have been speaking; for those numbers being impossible, it would not be surprising if they were thought entirely useless, and the object only of an unfounded speculation. This however would be a mistake. The calculation of imaginary quantities is of the greatest importance: questions frequently arise, of which we cannot immediately say, whether they include any thing real and possible, or not. Now, when the solution of such a question leads to imaginary numbers, we are certain that what is required is impossible.

‘In order to illustrate what we have said by an example, suppose it were proposed, to divide the number 12 into two such parts, that the product of those parts may be 40. If we resolve this question by the ordinary rules, we find for the parts sought  $6 + \sqrt{-4}$  and  $6 - \sqrt{-4}$ ; but these numbers are imaginary: we conclude therefore that it is impossible to resolve the question.’ Vol. i. p. 68.

Unfortunately for the author, the impossibility of this point is discovered, before we come to the imaginary conclusion; and consequently the circumstance of utility remains to be proved.

These imaginary numbers are represented as subject to the rules of addition, subtraction, multiplication, &c.

‘Another remarkable example is that, in which it is required to find the square root of  $2\sqrt{-1}$ . As there is here no rational part, we shall have  $a = 0$ ; now  $\sqrt{b} = 2\sqrt{-1}$  and  $b = -4$ , wherefore  $aa - b = 4$  and  $c = 2$ ; consequently the square root required is  $\sqrt{1 + \sqrt{-1}} = 1 + \sqrt{-1}$ , and the square of this quantity is found to be  $1 + 2\sqrt{-1} - 1 = 2\sqrt{-1}$ .’ Vol. i. p. 372.

In this instance,  $\sqrt{-1} \times \sqrt{-1}$  is supposed to be equal to  $-1$ ; whereas, by the rule that  $a - \times -$  gives  $+$ , it ought to be  $1$ ; and consequently the square root of the imaginary number  $2\sqrt{-1}$  would be  $2$ . That is  $2 = \sqrt{2\sqrt{-1}}$   $\therefore 4 = 2\sqrt{-1}$   $\therefore 2 = \sqrt{-1}$   $\therefore$  an imaginary number is greater than  $0$ : this is contrary to the writer's hypothesis.

We now proceed to the other doctrine which we mentioned; that of nothing, and infinity, on which M. Euler is very copious. First, what is  $0$ , or nothing?

‘It ought to be observed that  $0$ , or nothing, may be considered as a number which has the property of being divisible by all possible numbers; because by whatever number  $a$  we divide  $0$ , the quotient is always  $0$ ; for it must be remarked that the

multiplication of any number by nothing produces nothing, and therefore 0 times  $a$ , or  $0a$ , is 0.' Vol. i. p. 28.

Here is, we apprehend, an error of our author, in not accurately defining his terms. 0, not being a number, is not susceptible of multiplication or division; and if  $\frac{0}{4} = 0$ , then

$\frac{0}{5} = 0$ ; consequently  $\frac{0}{4} = \frac{0}{5}$ : divide both sides by 0, then  $\frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{5}$ , that is  $4 = 5$ ; which is absurd.

If we meet with so much absurdity in treating of nothing, the doctrine of infinity is equally prolific.

'We never therefore arrive completely at nothing, however great the denominator may be; and those fractions always preserving a certain quantity, we may continue the series of fractions in the 78th article without interruption. This circumstance has introduced the expression, that the denominator must be infinite, or infinitely great, in order that the fraction may be reduced to 0, or to nothing; and the word *infinite* in reality signifies here, that we should never arrive at the end of the series of the above-mentioned fractions.

'To express this idea, which is extremely well founded, we make use of the sign  $\infty$ , which consequently indicates a number infinitely great; and we may therefore say that this fraction  $\frac{1}{\infty}$  is a real nothing, for the very reason that a fraction cannot be reduced to nothing, until the denominator has been increased to infinity.

'It is the more necessary to pay attention to this idea of infinity, as it is derived from the first foundations of our knowledge, and as it will be of the greatest importance in the following part of this treatise.

'We may here deduce from it a few consequences, that are extremely curious and worthy of attention. The fraction  $\frac{1}{\infty}$  represents the quotient resulting from the division of the dividend 1 by the divisor  $\infty$ . Now we know that if we divide the dividend 1 by the quotient  $\frac{1}{\infty}$ , which is equal to 0, we obtain again the divisor  $\infty$ : hence we acquire a new idea of infinity; we learn that it arises from the division of 1 by 0; and we are therefore entitled to say, that 1 divided by 0 expresses a number infinitely great, or  $\infty$ .

'It may be necessary also in this place to correct the mistake of those who assert, that a number infinitely great is not susceptible of increase. This opinion is inconsistent with the just principles which we have laid down; for  $\frac{1}{2}$  signifying a number infinitely great, and  $\frac{2}{2}$  being incontestably the double of  $\frac{1}{2}$ , it is evident that a number, though infinitely great, may still become two or more times greater.' Vol. i. p. 34.

It is unnecessary to point out all the absurdities in the preceding paragraphs. They arise from want of attention to the nature of the fraction. The denominator may, we allow, be denoted by  $\infty$ , to express a very great number; and consequently the fraction will be very small; but, while there is a denominator, the fraction will be equal to some number; and it is absurd to say that it is equal to 0.

In the mode of treating equations, there is nothing new or particularly excellent. The equations of the second degree are fully discussed; and we are informed, that

‘every equation of the second degree necessarily contains two values of  $x$ , and it can neither have more nor less.’ Vol. i. p. 387.

It is true, that, if the author's hypothesis be allowed, one side of an equation may be resolved into two factors; but, when the known number is the same in each of these factors, it seems an unfounded assertion that the equation has two roots. In that instance, the equation has only one root. The root is the number, which, being substituted for the unknown number, gives the true solution of the equation; and, if only one number will do this, the equation, of whatever degree it may be, has only one root.

We have pointed out a sufficient number of instances, to establish, we think, on a solid foundation, our reasons for not entirely acquiescing in the translator's opinion of the work. We have discovered several ‘chasms in the reasoning,’ several ‘broken links in the concatenation of ideas,’ and several things ‘taken for granted which were not previously proved;’ but, *si aliquando bonus dormitat Homerus*, there are many things which we read with great satisfaction. The investigation of the binomial theorem we recommend for its ease and simplicity: progressions are clearly explained, and figurate numbers are placed in a light very favourable for students. We lament that M. Euler has given so slight an investigation of the resolution of equations by approximation, as we could have wished for a complete examination of equations of higher orders, which at present seem to be considered by most writers as either too difficult or unworthy of examination.

In the second volume the author appears to greater advantage. He is in his element in the very difficult part of analysis, the resolution of equations containing more than one unknown number; and the lovers of the Diophantine algebra will be pleased with the collection of problems solved by him and De la Grange, whose additions form a valuable part of the volume. Our limits do not permit us to enter into a farther investigation of the work; but this volume we can safely recommend to proficients in algebra, though of the former

we must say, notwithstanding the fame of its author, that it does not hold out a sufficient number of advantages to beginners, to supersede the books in common use. Before we dismiss the subject, we ought to observe, that the translator is entitled to praise for having afforded to English readers an opportunity of perusing a work very popular on the continent, and for having executed his task with great diligence and fidelity.

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*M. Musuri Carmen in Platonem. Isaaci Casauboni in Josephum Scaligerum Ode. Accedunt Poëmata et Exercitationes utriusque Linguae. Auctore S. Butler. Appendicis loco subjiciuntur Hymnus Cleanthis Stoici, Clementis Alexandrini Hymni duo, Henrici Stephani Adhortatio ad Lestionem Novi Fœderis. Conscripsit atque edidit Samuel Butler, A. B. Coll. Div. Joann. apud Cantabr. Soc. 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Payne. 1797.*

THIS is a very miscellaneous fabrication, of no very congruous materials; and its utility and worth are so questionable, as to give us little satisfaction in estimating its merits for our readers. The circumstance of our editor's not knowing that Musurus's poem had been published by Foster in his ingenious book on the Greek accents, is of itself a sufficient proof of no very extensive information on these subjects; and, though perfectly excusable in so young a scholar, is certainly an unpleasant presumption against his success in a most elaborate undertaking, to which very deep and multifarious reading, and extraordinary critical skill, are absolutely necessary. Mr. Butler is at present employed by the syndics of the Cambridge press, to republish Stanley's *Æschylus* with considerable additions from the notes of other scholars; and we doubt not, that as much justice will be done to this arduous appointment, as circumstances will admit. But we must say, from our knowledge of this subject, that an adequate edition of such a poet, from so young an editor, is absolutely IMPOSSIBLE; not from any deficiency, however, on the part of Mr. Butler, but what arises from the inevitable condition of human affairs. No genius, no industry, can have accomplished, in so short a life, what an edition of *Æschylus* demands. Copious knowledge can be the result of nothing but copious application. Perhaps, (if the supposition be not too presumptuous) the Cambridge syndics are not competent judges of the qualifications for such a work:

————— καλον γε τι τωτο και αδυν  
 Γινει' εν' ανθρωποις· ευρην δ' η φαδιον εντι·

and they may not be sufficiently disinterested in their views for the public service. Their own honour, and the lasting renown of the Cambridge press, would have been most effectually consulted, by every contribution and concession in their power, to make this momentous duty acceptable to professor Porson, who is, in the great essentials, most eminently adapted to this work, and in whom both talents and affection would have united to render his edition a *πῆμα εἰς αἰ,* an *everlasting possession* to posterity. We sincerely wish that Mr. Butler's exertions may alleviate our regret at the frustration which the professor's project has experienced; and shall rejoice at his success with a cordiality little less than that of his warmest and sincerest friends;

After these remarks, immediately connected with the conclusion of Mr. Butler's Preface, we proceed to the miscellany itself.

It is not necessary to discuss the merits of the poem of Musurus, or to offer extracts from it to our readers. It has been long and well known, especially since the appearance of Dr. Foster's book; and certainly needed no republication in Mr. Butler's collection.

The second poem, or the Sapphic ode of Isaac Casaubon, in praise of Joseph Scaliger, is wholly unworthy of so great a scholar as the emendator and annotator of Athenæus. This unrivalled critic, for a comprehensive acquaintance with Grecian literature, was most lamentably deficient in *metrical* information; and, if other proofs were wanting, this single composition would abundantly justify our censure, by an exhibition of almost every species of gross impropriety and error in this respect. Let the four first stanzas serve as a specimen of the whole performance, which extends to twenty; and as a demonstration of our veracity; though we must premise an assurance, that we shall not point out even one half of the inaccuracies of this extract.

ὦ μεγίστη πατερὸς μεγίστε,

Ἐξ ἰσθ' Μῆσαι Χαριτεὺς τε κεδναί

Ἐκθόροντ' ἐκ νηδύος ὅν φιλᾶντο,

Σκαλανε δὲ,

Τὶς δύνατ' ἀνδρῶν σθένει ἐξικεσθᾶν

Τὴ κλέος ἐσθλῆ, ἐπεσὶν γεραίρων

Ἡ σέ, ἣ τὸν σείο γονὴ' ἀγαυόν,

Θαῦμα βροτοῖσι;

Καίσαρος ῥώμην καὶ Ἀρχι' ἐργα,

Καίσαρος πυκνὰς πρᾶπιδας, σφόν τε

Νῦν, ὅλη ἐκπλήξ κελαδεὶ δυσὶς τε

Ἀντολίᾳ τε.

Ὅσα δ' ἐκτίμον σὺ λαβὼν ἐπεῖτα

Κληρὸν, ἐκπυστὸν φάτιν αἰσίον τ', εὐ-

φμίαν αὐτὸς πατρὶ ἔδεν ἵππῳ

Ἀντιπροσηΰας.



Παρθέν' Αἰολῆϊ, δολοπλοκῶς δε-  
 -σποινα μολπᾶς, ἡμεροφῶνε Σαπφῶι,  
 Δωριαν φορμυγγὰ λαβεύς, εἰρεῖα  
 Πατρίδι τιμᾶν.  
 Δευρ' ἰθ', ὦ μελίσσ' Ἑλικωνος, αἶδυ  
 Νεκταρ ἐκπύουσα λογῶν ξυναπτῶν  
 Λεσβίας Σειρήν. τινι πρῶτον οἰσεῖς  
 Ἀνθετι πλεῖστα-  
 -σ' ἐξ ἀκηρατῶ στεφανῶμα κατῶ;  
 Ἡ τυγ' Ἀλκαίον μελεῶν ἀνακτ' ἀ-  
 -δυθροῶν φευγεῖς ἐτι; δυσταλαίνα·  
 Πῶς γε φιλευντα,  
 Πῶς αἰδοῖν, καὶ τυ φιλεῦσα φευγεῖς,  
 Καὶ τυ θείαις ἀδυεπῆς ἐν ᾠδαῖς;  
 Ἡνὶδ' ὥς οἰκτρὸν τι μελίσσεται, δυσ-  
 -ελπίς Ἐρωτος.'

p. 36.

The first verse is chiefly borrowed from Pindar, Pyth. iv. 1. but a comma should have been placed at *χρη*; and the complexion of the passage, unless a more precise specification were intelligible, condemns the article before *φίλα* as improper.

That division of the word *Παρνασιον*, in the *Adonic*, is not authorised by the remains either of Sappho, or Erinna; and is probably a most offensive and unpardonable violation of the legitimate character of this ode. See also ver. 16 of this specimen.

The seventh and eighth verses are elegantly constructed from Pindar, Ol. i. 27—32. The tenth verse, without a cæsura, is blameless, is at least inharmonious and unpleasing.

That imitation of Euripides, in the fourth and fifth stanzas, is considerably impaired by the introduction of an extraneous and dissimilar image, the *Λεσβίας Σειρήν*, without either necessity or use. In ver. 18. *ἀνακτ'* should have been written *ἀναχθ'*.

These Greek odes are followed by a Latin Alcaïc, *Astronomia Laus*; not excellent in point of harmony; in which, amongst other metrical irregularities, we observe a false quantity: see v. 46, 47. We shall quote the fourth and fifth stanzas.

‘Cœlestium Sol fons sacer ignium  
 Tum clarus orbi prosiluit novo,  
 Hausitque sæcundata tellus  
 Ætherei latices diei,  
 Tum lenis alas aura super quatit;  
 Cœlumque lætis personuit modis  
 Concentus astrorum, et sereno  
 Ibat ovans vaga Luna curru.’

p. 58.

The phraseology is pure and classical, but is debased by a very bad association of discordant tenses; *quatit*, *personuit*, *ibat*.

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The next ode is also written in the Alcaïc measure, and is entitled *Celebratur Pax et Mercatura*.

At the side of the Greek and Latin translations from the English, which follow, the originals should have been placed. The elegiac Greek verses, on *Rari quippe boni*, are as unexceptionable as any in the collection; though Theocritus be too closely copied, and animation be wanting throughout. The subject of the Latin oration is uninteresting and trivial.

A hymn of Cleanthes comes next; in which Mr. Butler informs us, that he has made two conjectural emendations; but he has improperly forborne to state them. One of them he might have seen in Brunck. The volume is closed by two hymns from Clemens Alexandrinus, of very inferior merit; with the address of Henri Etienne in Greek to the readers of the New Testament; which, we are persuaded, no man will read *twice*,

— ὅστ' ὀλίγον περ ἐπιψαυεὶ πραπίδεσσι:

and, if *we* were to read it *once*, we should imitate the dogs of Egypt:

*Canes currentes bibere in Nilo flumine,  
A corcodilis ne rapiantur, traditum est.*

These remarks, however severe they may seem to some, are dictated, in reality, by the truest spirit of philanthropy and forbearance. A malignant critic would have wanted no opportunity in this miscellany of indulging the strongest propensities of his nature: but our object is salutary, both to the editor himself; our venerable *Alma Mater*, and the commonwealth of learning. We have no wish but to see every purpose, which these respective parties should have in view, laudably executed, with integrity and efficiency. The syndics of the university are in possession of great advantages, and of a most important trust, for the promotion of solid literature: and from them the public may justly demand an able and conscientious discharge of duty. On the other hand, it is required of every scholar, whom they may think fit to patronise, not to consider their facility of compliance, or incompetency of judgment on these subjects, as commodious instruments for experiment; but rather to balance, with a rigorous examination, the power of his own acquirements, and act accordingly. Above all, youth and inexperience, however accomplished in reference to their years and opportunities, must not think of plucking that golden bough by force, which will only yield to exquisite sagacity, matured by consummate knowledge.

*Ergo altè vestigia oculis, et rite repertum  
Carpe manu; namque ipse volens facilisque sequetur,  
Si te fata vocant: aliter non viribus ullis  
Vincere, nec duro poteris convellere ferro.*

*The Objections of infidel Historians and other Writers against Christianity, considered in eight Sermons preached at the Bampton Lecture at Oxford, in the Year 1797. To which is added, a Sermon preached before the University, on Sunday, Oct. 18, 1795. By William Finch, LL. D. &c. &c. 8vo. 5s. Board. Rivingtons. 1797.*

THE most important topic discussed in this course of Bamptonian lectures, is the nature of spiritual and ecclesiastical jurisdiction: the remarks on Voltaire, Gibbon, and other infidel writers, are now so threadbare, that they cease to be interesting. The discussion concerning temporal and spiritual power begins with the sixth sermon, preached on the answer of Christ to Pilate, whom the preacher calls the insolent Roman governor; 'Thou couldest have no power, unless it were given thee from above.' The subject is particularly delicate, because the persons intrusted with either spiritual or temporal power, are not very fond of an accurate investigation of their claims, or pleased with those nice limitations, which separate the one from the other. The question, however, as dependent on the scripture, is very simple; and the line is drawn by our Saviour in such a manner; that no one, in deviating from it, can plead ignorance of his commands. 'Fear not those who have the power over the body; but fear him who can cast into hell.' On this account we did not expect to meet with the following paragraph.

'It is indeed a lamentable circumstance, when the temporal opposes the spiritual power; particularly when it regulates not its decrees by reason and justice. True, the voice of law, wherever it resides, must be obeyed; but if its declarations be subversive of generally acknowledged duties, or should it preposterously countenance degrading and destructive vices, though an outward obedience might be paid to it, yet will it not fail of exciting inward repugnance. No; the statutes of any nation may enjoin things indifferent to religion; but if they contradict or oppose it, a ready and sincere obedience will scarcely be paid to them.' p. 109.

This inward repugnance, we must observe, would not have satisfied the early martyrs for our faith. When they were ordered by the mild Pliny to burn only a little incense before the statue of the Roman emperor, they were far from paying even outward obedience to the command. The fact is, that Christianity does not interfere with the civil duties of life; but, if states will ordain any thing which is contrary to the word of God, every Christian, if brought to the test of obedience or disobedience, is

bound to disobey the unrighteous command. It was on this principle that so many worthy men sacrificed their lives under heathen and Christian monarchs, under catholic and protestant establishments.

In the attack on the Romish church, the author is rather unfortunate in selecting the instance of excommunication, of which he thus speaks:

'This affected civil as well as spiritual rights: subjects were liable to it, not for their own faults, but for those of their sovereigns. Instead of merely abstaining from the society of one under that sentence (which was the only idea of excommunication appointed by the apostles), the unhappy sufferers could neither acquire nor possess any increase of property: the physician would scarcely approach him, his testimony was rejected in a court of justice, he could sue for no debts, accept no legacy, nor insist upon the performance of any agreement; and in case of death, his last testament was deprived of validity. After so many glaring instances (and history is full of the records of such tyranny exercised by the Romish church), shall we be any longer told of its essential tendency to favour liberty?' p. 116.

The scriptural meaning of excommunication is very clear. The excommunicated person was to be treated by the Christians in the same manner as if he had never been a Christian; that is, with all the attention to his civil rights, and all the courtesy of intercourse, which Christians, without power and influence, could expect to receive from their heathen neighbours. But ecclesiastical history teaches us, that the Romish is not the only church which has perverted the true intent of excommunication; and the concluding sentence of our preacher is no more applicable to the church of Rome, than to those which have separated from her. Where is the church which has possessed the 'tendency to favour liberty?' Where is the church in which individuals have not rendered their spiritual power the means of tyrannising over their temporal brethren?

Our author appears to have mistaken the conduct of the court of Rome for the principles of the Romish religion; and, from a neglect of due attention to the writings of Berington and Plowden, he has been too severe in his censures. The Romish faith has long ceased to be of much importance, except in one light, that its fall is the completion of prophecy; and, in the constrained retreat of the pontiff from his capital, we have the presage of a speedy dissolution of all ecclesiastical tyranny.

From the manner in which the question of ecclesiastical and civil power is treated, we were not surprised that the

preacher should flur over a point of criticism in one of the early discourses. On the spurious passage in the first epistle of St. John, we have this remark.

"There are three that bear record in heaven," though a questionable text, yet is not so absolutely necessary to establish the doctrine of the Trinity, but that it is sufficiently supported from other parts of scripture without it. Although it be not found in *all* the existing manuscripts, yet its authority cannot be entirely done away, till we are sure that the majority of manuscripts, as well lost as preserved, were without the obnoxious passage. In the mean time, the triumph attendant on expunging this verse from the sacred writings must be very incomplete, amidst such a cloud of other witnesses that concur in supporting this important and mysterious doctrine. P. 43.

Why is the word *all* printed in Italics? Will our divine affect to deceive us and his auditors by the word *all*, as if the passage were found in a majority of manuscripts? His readers and hearers should have been informed, that it is not to be found in any Greek manuscript of authority, and that the labours of Porson, Marsh, Michaelis, Griesbach, and Pappelbaum, have settled the question beyond all dispute.

We cannot say that these lectures have added much to the stock of theological learning; but, as they are printed in obedience to a will, they may fairly, under that protection, be suffered to escape the severity of criticism.

*Count Benyowsky, or the Conspiracy of Kamtschatka. A Tragic-Comedy, in five Acts, translated from the German, by the Rev. W. Rander, Teacher of the German Language, in the University of Cambridge. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Escher, 1798.*

IN noticing the German tragedies, we have too frequently found it necessary to censure extravagance and bombast. The authors cease to be natural, because they perpetually attempt to be sublime. The strength and the strangeness of their thoughts frequently astonish us; but we do not return to them with pleasure, because they do not develope to us the feelings of the human heart. From these faults the present drama is altogether free.

Count Benyowsky will be delivered down to posterity as a doubtful character; his intrepidity and genius will not be questioned, nor have they perhaps ever been excelled; but it may be suspected that, to these virtues of an adventurer, he

joined the profligacy which generally belongs to persons of that description. Such as he was, ~~we~~ have ever contemplated him with wonder and regret. In the hero of this drama, we recognise only his virtues; but such were the virtues of Benyowsky.

The play opens with his arrival at Kamtschatka, whence the exiles have long meditated an escape. Old Crustiew has formed their plans, and restrained their eagerness. In the count he discovers the proper qualities of a commander, and reveals to him his designs. He tells him,

‘ There are wheels enough, but no main-spring.

‘ *Benyowsky.* Yourself.

‘ *Crustiew.* I know what I am. The boy may grow up into a spirited youth, the greybeard can never regain his manhood. Give me time to contemplate every part of an enterprize, and my courage is often equal to my experience. But when sudden perils flash forth like lightning in my path, when years depend on the thought of the minute—this scheme or that—then am I staggered, then am I irresolute and my old age fails.

‘ *Benyowsky.* Suppose you found a man such as your fancy requires; what must he do with such a pack of inferior criminals? fool-hardiness without courage, intrepidity without magnanimity—momentary intoxication! who will answer for their fidelity?

‘ *Crustiew.* I—and their own misery. Shall I describe it to you—together with your own future destination? (*With increasing animation.*) Believe me, they are not all criminals. Many a ~~one has a hasty word—conducted to this grave.~~ Miserable is the guilty;—still more miserable the wretch whose indiscretion loads him with the weight of fetters. Bent down with pain and remorse, he treads these inhospitable shores, and penury bids him welcome: faces on which merited punishment, and often nature's own hand, has stamped the mark of villany, scowl upon him; in vain he seeks a friend. Eager longings for the future, and sweet recollection of the past—those cordials to hope—but tortures to despair—to these, the fruits of domestic love, he has bidden an eternal adieu. Industry and labour only lengthen out his woes. He can possess no property, every one plunders him with impunity! He must submit to oppression with patience; and should injury provoke him to revenge, he is strangled and thrown to the dogs. Banished from all honourable society like the rejected race of India—servitude and mean employments—dried fish and the slave whip—ah! what a picture of misery!—Health brings him no pleasure, his sickness is destitute of every consolation.—On his death-bed—already—ere he quits the world—the world has abandoned him. His last groan dies away in the silence of the desert, and the dank dew of death hangs un wiped upon his cold forehead. Days and

weeks pass on, and it is not discovered that the number of victims is diminished. Putrefaction only extorts the last favour from his tyrants—to be shovelled into the snow.

‘ *Benyowsky*. Stop, tedious murderer! No more of thy slow poison! Give me a dagger!

‘ *Cruftiew*. Full many a one already in despair, has plunged the dagger deep into his breast, and his destroyers only laughed. None have yet dared to indulge a hope—I do not say by death or royal clemency—but by prudence, courage, and united exertion to work ut our deliverance. It was reserved for thee—count Benyowsky—peer of Hungary—husband—father—hero!

‘ *Benyowsky*. (*with animation.*) Here I am! speak—what will you have me do?

‘ *Cruftiew*. Grey heads have only words, men deal in actions.

‘ *Benyowsky*. Fuel enough to my ardour! say, what shall—what can I do?

‘ *Cruftiew*. Liberate thyself and us.

‘ *Benyowsky*. Command my sword, and assist me with your counsel.

‘ *Cruftiew*. Nature has formed you to command, you want not my wisdom, but my caution. That shall faithfully attend you in all your dangers.

‘ *Benyowsky*. But how? I am still in the dark. Human might has combined with all powerful nature to thwart us. On this side, desert wastes and boundless fields of snow,—on that, trackless seas, bar us from the habitable world. Without ships, without a guide, without arms, without provisions,—struggling to-day with men, to-morrow with famine,—to-day free, to-morrow dead.

‘ *Cruftiew*. Dead and free—well! and if it were so—

‘ *Benyowsky*. Right, old man! speak on.

‘ *Cruftiew*. We play a noble game, much to win, nought but life to lose.

‘ *Benyowsky*. 'Tis well! shew me now the minuter parts of your great plan.

‘ *Cruftiew*. (*Opens a small cupboard, takes out a book and gives it to Benyowsky.*)

‘ *Benyowsky*. (*Opens it and reads.*) Anson's voyage round the world. What is this for?

‘ *Cruftiew*. You have pronounced the name of a friend. At my arrival the barbarians ransacked all my pockets; the little money I had about me, with other trifles, was a prey to their rapacity. I trembled—they laughed me to scorn—the fools did not know, that I trembled for my books. Three friends have been the fraternal companions of my banishment; Anson, Plato and Plutarch: to the second I owe my belief in a God and a better world to come; the third has described to me the heroes of Greece, and taught me to feel the power and dignity of man.—But Anson—Ah, Beny-

owsky!—(*Pointing to the book.*) 'Twas Anfon-taught me hope.'  
P. 33.

The daughter of the governor has become enamoured of Benyowsky. The suddenness of the passion is the greatest defect in the play; but for this some excuse may be found in the situation of a young woman of quick feelings at Kamtschatka, among barbarians and Russians. 'Happy mortals,' she says, 'have love and wine; these savages have only sensuality and brandy.' On such a woman, the appearance of a man like Benyowsky must have made a sudden and strong impression; and the time of the drama will not allow it to be developed more slowly. The governor, a man of a generous spirit, consents to his daughter's wishes; he gives Benyowsky his liberty, and makes choice of him for his son-in-law; but the count has already sworn to deliver his comrades from their exile, and he is already married.

The plot is made known to the governor; but Benyowsky, with admirable presence of mind, satisfies him on the subject. Athanasia hears the charge; and it for a moment alarms her: she visits Benyowsky, tells him what she has heard, and entreats him to forgive her for the momentary suspicion. If our limits would allow us, we would extract this scene, in which he confesses to her his conspiracy and his marriage. We have rarely perused a finer. She becomes his friend and his preserver, when the plot has been revealed by the indiscretion of one conspirator and the treachery of another. The insurrection succeeds; and the last scene discovers the harbour, the exiles on the point of setting sail, the governor a prisoner, and Athanasia ready to depart with Benyowsky to live as a sister with him and his wife. With this part of her conduct we are not pleased; for it is difficult to believe that she would, in such circumstances, have forsaken such a father; and yet it would have been a torture to have remained with one whom she had deceived, perhaps ruined, though that deception had proceeded from motives so noble. We read the scene with emotion and delight.

'Benyowsky. I have now but a few moments. Do we part as friends?

'(*Governour throws a look of contempt upon him, turns away from him and gnashes his teeth.*)

'Benyowsky. That I was taken prisoner fighting against Russians, was that a crime?—That I have this day burst these hard fetters, is that a crime?

'(*Governour keeps a sullen silence.*)

'Benyowsky. Honour and patriotism summoned me; to the fate of these my brothers an oath bound mine.

'(*Governour does not answer.*)

' *Benyowsky.* I had left at home a pregnant wife—Old man! what wouldst thou have done in my place?

(*Governour stubbornly silent.*)

' *Benyowsky.* Am I not worthy of one word, of one look? It is well! What grief and rage do now condemn, your cooler blood to-morrow will excuse.—Farewell!

(*Governour grasps his chains in fury and attempts to rush upon him. He is restrained. He sees Athanasia, beats his forehead, with redoubled fury, and laments aloud.*)

' *Athanasia.* (*Throws herself at his feet.*) Pardon, my father.

' *Governour.* (*Turning from her.*) Who speaks to me?

' *Athanasia.* Your blessing.

' *Governour.* My curse pursue thee across the sea! may'st thou hear it in the storm! hear it in the arms of thy paramour! Tremble at it when the lightning flashes! and when the sun shines forth, think on thy father's grave. When the thunder roars, may it sound my curse into thine ear, and if a soft breeze murmur, may'st thou fancy it thy father's dying groan. May all abandon thee at thy last hour, as thou abandonest me; let nought but the image of thy wrathful father float before thy fevered brain! Shouldst thou bear children, a grandfire's curse be their inheritance! May their ingratitude revenge me on their mother!

(*Athanasia sinks speechless and half dead into Benyowsky's arms.*)

' *Governour.* (*Moved by the sight of Athanasia.*) Stay with me, my child! my dear deluded child! remain with me! I am old and infirm. When thy mother died, she said to me, weep not, I leave you Athanasia. Wilt thou make a liar of thy dying mother? a few weeks, perhaps only a few days, how soon they are gone! Then will I lay myself down and die, and thou may'st say—I have fulfilled the commands of my mother, I have closed my father's eyes.

' *Benyowsky.* (*Agitated.*) Spare her!

' *Governour.* Thou art my only joy! my only consolation! I love thee with a father's fondness;—so will no vile seducer love thee;—satiated in thine arms he will repay thee with disgust;—whilst thy old father, in return for his blessing, asks but the gentle pressure of thy hand upon his eyelids, when they would close themselves in death. Oh! that these locks were not already grey, in this sad moment would they whiten, and the light perchance might move thee,

(*Athanasia attempts to raise herself and falls fainting back.*)

' *Benyowsky.* (*Very much moved.*) God of heaven! help!—Seize her and bear her away.

' *Governour.* (*Beside himself with anxiety and grief.*) Count Benyowsky, if thou believest in God, hear me! I have never offended thee! I have shewn thee all the kindness in my power! Thou hast robbed me of my all. Thou hast robbed me of my



rank and honour! Leave me my daughter and I still am rich! Count Benyowsky, if thou believest in God, hear me!—For thine own wife's sake, who prays for thee at home! How can God grant her prayer, if thou robbest me, a poor old man, of this my only jewel? For thy child's sake, which thou knewest not, when thou wentest from home, if thou wouldst not that it make thee a wretched father! What wouldst thou do with her? see already she is a corpse—restore to me the corpse of my daughter!

(*He falls upon his knees, and stretches out his hands towards heaven.*) Count Benyowsky, I have no words—I have no tears, but God has thunder!

(*Benyowsky. (Very much agitated, lays the fainting Athanasia in the arms of the kneeling old man.)* There you have her, old father! (*He draws out the picture of his wife.*) Emilia! my wife!—Away on board! (*Confused tumult. All hasten on board.*)

(*Gouverneur. (Pressing his daughter to his bosom in ecstacy, while he stretches out his other hand towards the ship.)* God bless thee, stranger! God Almighty bless thee! P. 206.

It was with sorrow we remembered that Athanasia and her father met with a severer fate; but, in thus deviating from the history, the author has done wisely. He has produced an admirable tragedy; the best, in our opinion, that has yet appeared from the German.

*Annals of Medicine, for the Year 1797. Exhibiting a concise View of the latest and most important Discoveries in Medicine and Medical Philosophy. By Andrew Duncan, Sen., M.D. and Andrew Duncan, Jun. M.D. Fellows of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh. 8vo. Vol. II. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.*

IN the twentieth volume of our new series, we introduced this work—the Medical Commentaries under another title. The Annals have the same form, and the same merits and defects. The present volume contains the accounts of books, medical observations, and medical news. If the publications noticed are not very numerous, interesting, or important, Dr. Duncan promises that, when the free uninterrupted communication with the continent shall have been restored, the advantages of his more extensive connections will be perceived.

The books of which a survey is taken are, Dr. Russell's Account of Indian Serpents; Dr. Monro's three Treatises; Dr. Rollo's two Cases of Diabetes Mellitus, with Mr. Cruikshank's Trials of various Acids, &c. in the Lues Venerea; Mr. Kelly's Observations on the Medical Effects of Compression by the Tourniquet; Dr. James Hamilton's

Translation of Morgagni; Dr. Clarke's Treatise on the Yellow Fever of Dominica; Dr. M'Lean's Inquiry into the Cause of the Mortality among the Troops at St. Domingo; and the Reports of Dr. Beddoes concerning the Effects of the Nitrous Acid in the Venereal Disease.

The foreign publications are few, and of little interest. The description of a remarkable appearance in the retina of the eye, by professor Reil, is the first in order. There is an oval yellow spot in the retina, exactly in the axis of the eye; and, in the middle of the spot, there is a plait or fold. The professor seems to think that this spot is produced by a chemical change, in the retina, in consequence of light. It is certainly connected with vision, and most probably with the active state of the nervous power.

'Hecker's Universal History of Medicine' (vol. i.) follows; but the only part extracted is an idle declamation, respecting the superior excellence of the medicine and the medical arrangements of Germany, so incorrectly rendered into English, as to be scarcely intelligible.

The next work is entitled, 'Hints for a System of Diagnostics,' by Dr. Wichmann of Hanover, and is very valuable. The first diagnosis extracted is a very judicious one, between crusta lactea, and a cutaneous eruption which the author calls *c. serpiginosa*. The next relates to the zona, the *erysipelas vesiculosum*, *erysipelas e veneno*, pemphigus, and febris bullosa. The next attempt is to distinguish between the different swellings of the neck, a task of no great difficulty; and there is also a diagnosis between chorea and raphania. The chorea of the Germans is very violent, sometimes rising to ecstasy and somnambulism. The last distinction respects cases of chronic vomiting.

The medical observations are, as usual, of unequal value. The first is a case of the morbus petechialis sine febre, contracted from eating large quantities of sugar, and cured by the vitriolic acid. A circumstance fatal to the system of Mr. Gale Jones is, that, during the state of great debility, the whooping cough, under which the child from the first laboured, ceased, and returned with the strength of the patient.

Mr. Morrison strongly recommends, in venereal ulcers, a corrosive, consisting of equal parts of white arsenic and red præcipitate, which, without any *decisive* course of mercury internally, will (he thinks) cure the disease. This gentleman has also used with success, in tinea, a paste made with a quart of ale, six ounces of flour, and four ounces of yellow resin.

Mr. Mackie found a depression of the bone over the longitudinal sinus produce no bad effect: the wound healed with a slight exfoliation. Mr. Kellie's three cases, in which the ni-

trous acid was successful in syphilis, are too minute. He thinks it acts as a specific; at least, blood drawn during its use did not appear unusually oxygenated. Mr. Brown relates a case where the uterus had been completely inverted near three-quarters of an hour, and was returned with complete success. Mr. Burd has communicated an account of a fortunate amputation at the shoulder-joint.

Mr. White mentions a curious instance of the tape-worm in the stomach, though the intestines are almost the constant residence of this congeries of animals: it was discharged by vomiting. A characteristic symptom of worms in the stomach, in his opinion, is a kind of tickling in the upper part of the gullet.

Dr. Mossman's history of typhus, succeeded by measles, is by no means singular. It is very extraordinary, he thinks, because the exposure to infection was prior to the fever, and because it seems an exception to the rule, that two infections cannot exist in the system together. This is, however, an idle fancy; and the fact should be restricted to two infections *in an active state*. We know not how long the infection of measles may lie dormant in the blood: but some instances, in which a fortnight is said to have elapsed between the reception of the miasma and the appearance of the disease, are recorded on good authority.

The case of the extra-uterine foetus, recorded by Mr. Wilson, is very remarkable in one respect. The accident, which seems to have occasioned the change of place, occurred three months after the commencement of pregnancy; a period when the foetus is supposed to be in the uterus. We suspect that the accident occasioned a miscarriage, and that the extra-uterine conception was subsequent to it.

The case of phthisis pulmonalis, cured by mephitic air, deserves notice. The effluvia, however, were not wholly mephitic, but proceeded from fugar and foetid water, and were therefore more probably a mixture of inflammable and hepatic airs. The narcotic effect was extraordinary; but we have observed the same from the effluvia of cow-dung, which, by some enterprising pneumatic physician, was placed in the bedroom of a phthisical patient, during the night. An attendant was equally sensible of the soporific power of the effluvia.

Mr. Simmons' observations on Mr. Baynton's method of treating ulcers in the legs, conclude this part of the volume. He endeavours only to explain the action of the adhesive plasters, and attributes their good effects to their equable pressure, and their acting as bandages.

Under the head of 'Medical News,' the first object is Dr. Wright's report, respecting the diseases most common among the troops in the West-Indies. This report undoubtedly con-

tains some remarks of importance; but they might have been given in two pages.

Mr. Baldwin's method of curing the plague, by rubbing the infected person with olive oil, is important. It has been tried in the hospital of St. Antony, at Smyrna, and is said to be efficacious.

We afterwards meet with an analysis of two essays, one on the cause of rain, and the other on light, as a component part of bodies, from the 'Essays by a Society of Gentlemen at Exeter;' but these we have already noticed, in our review of that work.

Various accounts are given, in different parts of this section, of the effects of the nitrous acid in syphilis. In general, the accounts are favourable; but Mr. Bell is decidedly on the opposite side. On a full examination of the different facts, we find great room for scepticism, and have much reason to doubt, whether it can ever be an useful medicine in eradicating the disease. The oxygenated muriat of pot-ash seems to have been of greater efficacy in this disease and in scurvy. Indeed, we have had occasion to observe, that, if it be the object to oxygenate the blood, we must not only seek substances which contain oxygen, but those from which it can be separated in the body. In the oxygenated muriat of pot-ash, the air adheres very slightly.

The effects of nitrous fumigation in checking infection are supported by Mr. Macgregor.—Mr. Simmons recommends, from experience, Dr. Fowler's mineral solution in the whooping-cough; Dr. Harness, from the same source, supports the efficacy of the application of the gastric fluid of graminivorous animals to foul ulcers: it should have been noticed, that this is not a new attempt. Mr. Hamrick has tried, with good success, hops in the form of poultices and fomentations, in ulcers of the worst kind. Dr. Wilson, of Spalding, recommends the argentum nitratum in epilepsy, in doses of two or three grains, and the succus spissatus (*spissatus*) cinaræ in diseased livers. Mr. Macleish, who practised in 1795 and 1796 in Corsica, represents opium as having cured some obstinate tertians and quartans, which had resisted bark and the mineral solution: vitriolated zinc was also occasionally useful.

- An abstract of Bonhomme's memoir, from the *Annales de Chymie*, is inserted, in which alkaline solutions and phosphate of lime or soda, are recommended in rickets, from the idea that the disease arises from a defect of the latter neutrals, and a development of an acid, resembling the oxalic.

An account of intended publications, a meteorological journal, &c. are added. The barometer in 1796 was highest in October, viz. at 30, 37, and lowest in January, 28, 27,—a very considerable range. The thermometer was in August at 79, and in December at 17. The rain was 17, 14, inches.

*The Italian, or the Confessional of the Black Penitents. A Romance. By Ann Radcliffe, Author of the Mysteries of Udolpho, &c. 3 Vols. 12mo. 15s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.*

IT was not difficult to foresee that the *modern romance*, even supported by the skill of the most ingenious of its votaries, would soon experience the fate of every attempt to please by what is unnatural, and by a departure from that observance of real life, which has placed the works of Fielding, Smollett, and some other writers, among the permanent sources of amusement. It might for a time afford an acceptable variety to persons whose reading is confined to works of fiction, and who would, perhaps, be glad to exchange dullness for extravagance; but it was probable that, as its constitution (if we may so speak) was maintained only by the passion of terror, and that excited by trick, and as it was not conversant in incidents and characters of a natural complexion, it would degenerate into repetition, and would disappoint curiosity. So many cries ‘that the wolf is coming,’ must at last lose their effect. In reviewing the *Mysteries of Udolpho*, we hazarded an opinion, that, if a better production could appear, it must come only from the pen of Mrs. Radcliffe; but we were not totally blind to the difficulties which even she would have to encounter, in order to keep up the interest she had created in that work, and in the *Romance of the Forest*; and the present publication confirms our suspicions. The *Mysteries of Udolpho* fell short of the *Romance of the Forest*, by the tedious protraction of events, and by a redundancy of description: the *Italian* falls short of the *Mysteries of Udolpho*, by reminding us of the same characters and the same scenes; and, although the descriptive part is less prolix, the author has had recourse to it in various instances, in which it has no natural connexion with the story. There are, however, some scenes that powerfully seize the imagination, and interest the passions. Among these we prefer the interview between the marchesa and Schedoni in the church, and the discovery made by Schedoni that Ellena was his daughter. On the latter subject, we will gratify our readers with an extract. Schedoni approached Ellena with an intention of murdering her; but,

‘as often as he prepared to plunge the poignard in her bosom, a shuddering horror restrained him. Astonished at his own feelings, and indignant at what he termed a dastardly weakness, he found it necessary to argue with himself, and his rapid thoughts said, ‘Do I not feel the necessity of this act! Does not what is dearer to me than existence—does not my consequence depend on the execution of it? Is she not also beloved by the young Vivaldi?—have I already forgotten the church of the Spirito Santo?’ This consid-

tion re-animated him; vengeance nerved his arm, and drawing aside the lawn from her bosom, he once more raised it to strike; when, after gazing for an instant, some new cause of horror seemed to seize all his frame, and he stood for some moments aghast and motionless like a statue. His respiration was short and laborious, chilly drops stood on his forehead, and all his faculties of mind seemed suspended. When he recovered, he stooped to examine again the miniature, which had occasioned this revolution, and which had lain concealed beneath the lawn that he withdrew. The terrible certainty was almost confirmed, and forgetting, in his impatience to know the truth, the imprudence of suddenly discovering himself to Ellena at this hour of the night, and with a dagger at his feet, he called loudly "Awake! awake! Say, what is your name? Speak! speak quickly!"

Ellena, aroused by a man's voice, started from her mattress, when, perceiving Schedoni, and, by the pale glare of the lamp, his haggard countenance, she shrieked, and sunk back on the pillow. She had not fainted; and believing that he came to murder her, she now exerted herself to plead for mercy. The energy of her feelings enabled her to rise and throw herself at his feet, "Be merciful, O father! be merciful!" said she, in a trembling voice.

"Father!" interrupted Schedoni, with earnestness; and then, seeming to restrain himself, he added, with unaffected surprise, "Why are you thus terrified?" for he had lost, in new interests and emotions, all consciousness of evil intention, and of the singularity of his situation. "What do you fear?" he repeated.

"Have pity, holy father!" exclaimed Ellena in agony.

"Why do you not say whose portrait that is?" demanded he, forgetting that he had not asked the question before.

"Whose portrait?" repeated the confessor in a loud voice.

"Whose portrait!" said Ellena, with extreme surprise.

"Ay, how came you by it? Be quick—whose resemblance is it?"

"Why should you wish to know?" said Ellena.

"Answer my question," repeated Schedoni, with increasing sternness.

"I cannot part with it, holy father," replied Ellena, pressing it to her bosom, "you do not wish me to part with it!"

"Is it impossible to make you answer my question?" said he, in extreme perturbation, and turning away from her, "has fear utterly confounded you!" Then, again stepping towards her, and seizing her wrist, he repeated the demand in a tone of desperation.

"Alas! he is dead! or I should not now want a protector," replied Ellena, shrinking from his grasp, and weeping.

"You trifle," said Schedoni, with a terrible look, "I once more demand an answer—whose picture?"—

‘ Ellena lifted it, gazed upon it for a moment, and then pressing it to her lips said, “ This was my father.”

“ Your father !” he repeated in an inward voice, “ your father !” and shuddering, turned away.

‘ Ellena looked at him with surprise. “ I never knew a father’s care,” she said, “ nor till lately did I perceive the want of it.— But now.”—

“ His name ?” interrupted the confessor.

“ But now” continued Ellena—“ if you are not as a father to me—to whom can I look for protection ?”

“ His name ?” repeated Schedoni, with sterner emphasis.

“ It is sacred,” replied Ellena, “ for he was unfortunate !”

“ His name ?” demanded the confessor, furiously.

“ I have promised to conceal it, father.”

“ On your life, I charge you tell it ; remember, on your life !”

‘ Ellena trembled, was silent, and with supplicating looks implored him to desist from enquiry, but he urged the question more irresistibly. “ His name then,” said she, “ was Mari-nella.”

‘ Schedoni groaned and turned away ; but in a few seconds, struggling to command the agitation that shattered his whole frame, he returned to Ellena, and raised her from her knees, on which she had thrown herself to implore mercy.

“ The place of his residence ?” said the monk.

“ It was far from hence,” she replied ; but he demanded an unequivocal answer, and she reluctantly gave one.

‘ Schedoni turned away as before, groaned heavily, and paced the chamber without speaking ; while Ellena, in her turn, enquired the motive of his questions, and the occasion of his agitation. But he seemed not to notice any thing she said, and, wholly given up to his feelings, was inflexibly silent, while he stalked, with measured steps, along the room, and his face, half hid by his cowl, was bent towards the ground.

‘ Ellena’s terror began to yield to astonishment, and this emotion increased, when, Schedoni approaching her, she perceived tears swell in his eyes, which were fixed on her’s, and his countenance soften from the wild disorder that had marked it. Still he could not speak. At length he yielded to the fulness of his heart, and Schedoni, the stern Schedoni, wept and sighed ! He seated himself on the mattress beside Ellena, took her hand, which she af-frighted attempted to withdraw, and when he could command his voice, said, “ Unhappy child !—behold your more unhappy father !” As he concluded, his voice was overcome by groans, and he drew the cowl entirely over his face.’ Vol. ii. p. 297.

Among those parts of the romance which we disapprove, we may reckon the examination before the court of inquisition : it is

so improbable, that we should rather have attributed it to one of Mrs. Radcliffe's numerous imitators.

But, notwithstanding occasional objections, the Italian may justly be considered as an ingenious performance; and many persons will read it with great pleasure and satisfaction.

*The Scriptural History of the Earth and of Mankind, compared with the Cosmogonies, Chronologies, and original Traditions of ancient Nations; an Abstract and Review of several modern Systems, with an Attempt to explain philosophically, the Mosaiac Account of the Creation and Deluge, and to deduce from this last Event the Causes of the actual Structure of the Earth. In a Series of Letters. With Notes and Illustrations. By Philip Howard, Esq. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Faulder. 1797.*

IN an age which has been absurdly styled the age of reason, and at a time when exploded arguments have been brought forward with the utmost confidence and with equal ignorance, to destroy the credit of the most ancient history upon record, we read with pleasure a defence of scripture founded on its intrinsic merits, and heightened by a contrast with the absurd traditions of paganism. Our author carefully examines the traditions of other nations; points out, in many cases, the grounds of their errors; shows, in several instances, how far they agree with scripture; and gives sufficient encouragement to every unprejudiced man to retain his confidence in scriptural veracity.

The work is divided into nine letters. To each of these are subjoined notes and illustrations, drawn from a very extensive course of reading; and throughout we have evident proofs of erudition and philosophical acuteness. If, in the notes, the writer declaims with too great vehemence against modern philosophers, his zeal seems to flow from good intentions, and to have been inflamed by the persecutions in which many pious and upright individuals have been involved; and, amidst the warmth of his invective against the destroyers of the French monarchy, he does not altogether forget the rights of mankind.

In the first letter, Mr. Howard endeavours to show the insufficiency of modern systems respecting the formation of the earth; treats of the co-incidence of ancient traditions with the Mosaiac account of the creation and deluge; mentions the mutual resemblance of the scriptural, Tartarian, Arabic, and other genealogies of the patriarchs; and traces, with great probability, the progress of population and civilisation in early times. In this part, the information to be derived from Homer is illustrated by judicious observations; and infidels, who treat



with scorn the writings of Moses, are requested to pause a moment, that they may reflect on the confirmation given to the Jewish accounts by other histories. Among various corroborative remarks, are those which follow.

‘ To invalidate the preference so justly due to the mosaical narrations, it has been observed, that in the age of authentic profane history we no longer find in the Greek and Roman authors the same names of towns, provinces, or nations, which are given to them by Moses and the sacred writers. Such an objection can only proceed from those who are but superficially informed, or from those who purposely wish to mislead. A sufficient number of these which occur without any sensible alteration, or which in different languages are expressed by synonymous terms, notwithstanding the lapse of time and frequent changes of domination, still do homage to the veracity of those writings. The Greeks, very naturally attached to the harmonising sounds of their own language, softened to its tone those barbarous names which offended their ears; or, more anciently, translated into their own tongue names which generally bore a meaning. The Romans, through pride, in sending colonies into those countries, endeavoured to efface their ancient appellations, by imposing Latin names entirely different. In spite of these masters of the world, great part of the nations, provinces, and cities of Asia, have preserved their ancient names, modified solely by the different pronunciations or terminations of the victorious languages. Damascus and Sidon have, from time immemorial, retained those names without other variation than such as these occasioned. Aiguptos and Aegyptus are only varied pronunciations of Ai-coptos, or Ai-caphor. The sound of some names indeed totally disappears in translations. But it is no less singular than worthy of remark, that the Tartars and Arabs, unsubdued by the arms or usages of those various conquerors, have restored to many towns and provinces of Asia their ancient denominations, forgotten for many ages in the country itself. They are the same as were given them by the Jewish writers. In the time of the Greek sovereigns, or of the Roman emperors, one might have in vain searched for Balbec or Tadmor, disguised under the more harmonious titles of Heliopolis and Palmyra, which are however mere translations of the former. At this time we might as fruitlessly address ourselves to the Arabs to find them under those softer names. Byblos still exists at present under its oriental name of Gebel or Gybele, as the Hebrew historians call it. Tyre, called in scripture Sor, is denominated Sur by the Arabs: to Susana, Chus has again given his name of Chusistan. Grand Cairo, as the capital of Egypt, is called Mefr, from Misraim grandson of Cham, by the Copts, who have resumed their ancient title derived from Caphor. Turgoma has again given his to the Turcomans and their country. It is probable that the name of the province

of Irac is a small variation of Erech or Arach, one of those towns built by Nimrod in that country. Tchín, which is the true name of that country we call China, is a varied pronunciation of the Gog or Gin of the western or eastern Tartars, whom those nations acknowledge as their founder. In the 13th century the southern part of that kingdom still bore the name of Matchin, the Chinese pronunciation of Magog. Hence the Chinese are evidently proved to be the descendants of those two patriarchs. Thus we see the Tartars and Arabs, the most ancient and unmixed nations of the earth, who had for ages kept aloof and ever independent of the various masters who by turns possessed themselves of western Asia, descending from their ancient retreats to pay new homage, after so many ages, to the veracity of the Mosaiical history. It is thus we find a nation known to Europe within four centuries, and of which the Persians, Greeks, and Romans, were totally ignorant, situated at more than 1500 leagues distance from Judea, still bearing the name of those first fathers of the north and east indicated by the Jewish writer. This surely is a striking proof of the valuable exactness of his narration, even with respect to facts absolutely foreign to the Israelites. This restoration or preservation of antique names by nations so distinct in religion, and so separated by situations, is without doubt a fact no less singular than striking, which invincibly proves that 3300 years have served only to illustrate and confirm what Moses had so long ago advanced on the first origin of nations.'  
P. 73.

We are not inclined to bestow so much praise on M. Court de Gebelin, as is poured on him in one of the notes; and sometimes our author seems to us rather fanciful in his etymologies. Thus Ararat, he tells us, was called *Thamanim*; a name compounded of the Hebrew words *Theba*, a boat, and *Shaman*, denoting the number 8. *Theba*, however, is not a Hebrew but an Egyptian word for a boat; and it is scarcely visible in the word *Thamanim*, which might as well mean *the eight* as *the boat of the eight*.

Mr. Howard is evidently of the catholic persuasion. He is zealous for our constitution; yet he can see the necessity of some reforms, particularly in favour of the catholics of Ireland.

'There is yet, besides the pressure of taxes and some partial evils and abuses, one seed of discontent, and of even possible dissolution of the whole frame of government, still unremoved in these kingdoms. The cure of those must necessarily be the work of time and gradual reformation: this may be pulled up at once.

'The mild religion of Christ never certainly authorised persecution in any shape, and the church of England has always claimed toleration as its peculiar boast; but yet its practice, like that of all other predominant churches, has been far from conformable to this

golden rule. As Mr. Paley ingenuously observes, the anxiety of preserving power once acquired has ever found various pretexts to gloss over the practice of persecution disavowed in principle. The pretended necessary alliance between the established church and the glorious constitution of these realms, and the preservation of both, have hitherto been successfully held up as a full justification of penal laws against all dissenters from the creed of the former. Those against Roman catholics were in some cases sanguinary, in others highly immoral, provoking and authorising legal robbery, exciting not only dissensions, but the blackest perfidy and ingratitude amongst the nearest kindred. To the immortal honour of Englishmen, the moral sense of the people has seldom suffered them to be carried into strict execution in this kingdom. In Ireland, the rapacity of needy adventurers sent thither to despoil instead of civilizing or conciliating the natives, and the alarms of their descendants, suffered them not to sleep. Rebellions and insurrections, excited by wrongs and severities not to be tamely borne by human nature, caused their strict execution to be looked upon till very lately without horror or disgust. These foul stains, which for more than 200 years have shamed the laws of a free people, have happily at length been done away; but incapacities of every kind still continue not only to vilify, but to deprive of the noblest rights of Britons, those of that persuasion not only in Britain but in Ireland, where they constitute a very great majority of the nation. In that sister kingdom, the long operation of oppressive and degrading penal laws has reduced the numerous catholic peasantry not only to an indigence, but to a state of abject subjection unknown even to the boors of Russia or Poland. By their hard task-masters they were looked upon as an incumbrance they reluctantly suffered to exist. Sound policy had at last suggested, in times when mobs were industriously taught that they alone were sovereigns, that the abolition of all those remaining penal statutes, which stigmatized two thirds of the nation as aliens to the constitution, was not only expedient, but perhaps necessary to the salvation of the empire. Unfortunately the revived apprehensions of the ruling parties, both in church and state, of losing any portion of long monopolised power and riches, dashed from the lips of that insulted people the hopes officially held out of speedy emancipation. It was urged that sufficient, perhaps more than sufficient, indulgence, had already been shewn; that the catholics were re-admitted to the protection of the laws; that even the right of election had been restored to them: and it was insinuated, that the capacity of sitting in the legislative body, or of holding the higher civil or military offices, could be of little moment to the great body of that people, whose indigence of course excluded them. Insult was thus added to injustice. One of the greatest blessings of our happy constitution is, that there is no man, however low his station, who may not hope by industry and merit to raise himself to the highest situations. By any whatever legal

incapacities, not only he, but his latest posterity, is cut off from every hope of rising to a par with other subjects. So much for the justice of this proposition: let us now consider it in a political light. The monopoly of riches in any hands can never contribute to the prosperity of a nation. It is the affluence and industry of the lower classes which can alone make it great. Extreme indigence has made the poor Irish catholics idle and profligate, and thence lawless, and dangerous to all social order: they have no concern in the public weal. Surely sound policy requires that every incitement be held out to rouse them from a state so immediately detrimental, so threatening to the very existence of society. Dragooning may awe them for a time, but it cannot last; and if it could, is this a means of ruling British subjects? P. 187.

This note was written some time before the dreadful system was established, which now shakes Ireland to its centre: but we must remark, that, in this country, industry and merit cannot raise a man to the highest situations. He cannot even serve the state, in many of the lowest offices, without a qualification derived from the sacramental test.

The true catholic principle appears in our author's wish for the removal of all the restraints attendant upon the possession of offices.

'In Great Britain, the numerous protestant dissenters of every denomination have a no less equally just claim to unlimited, unrestricted toleration. That the members of the legally established church in one part of the kingdom should not be entitled to serve their own country in a military line, without being subjected to prosecution for not having outwardly conformed to rites repugnant to its tenets, is a manifest absurdity, which an annual indemnity act only makes more glaring. It is alleged that one sect of these dissenters is even from religious principles not only inimical to the established church, but to monarchy and the present constitution. Some of these may be really enemies to them, but certainly not all. Already admitted into both houses of parliament, enjoying many high offices, and filling many corporations throughout England, and thereby possessed of great power and influence, will not partial restrictions naturally make those who are already so inclined still more hostile, and use every effort to overturn that government which excludes them from any part of their common rights? To many other sectaries no principles adverse to government can be objected, and they can only imbibe such from a sense of grievances under it. Their common persecution, for such it is, alone binds all these otherwise heterogeneous parties into one formidable mass of justly dissatisfied men. Can government and the constitution for ever remain secure with such a leaven, fermenting in so large a portion of its subjects? Restore to all their unrestricted rights, and all union is dissolved. Even the most hostile part will be no longer formi-

dable. Having no longer cause of real complaint, they will be deserted not only by other sectaries, but by the sounder part of their own brethren. True policy then, no less than justice, demands that in this free country every man, whatever be his religious persuasion, should enjoy in their fullest extent all its rights. Crimes against society and the laws should alone exclude. Whoever believes in a religion, in so much as he is actuated by his creed, is a friend to virtue.' p. 190.

Our readers may be surprised that we have called this the true catholic principle; but justice is due to the leaders of all parties. The members of almost every Christian sect have been guilty of base acts of persecution: but the crimes of the sectaries are not always to be imputed to the principles of the sects. True catholicism would entirely separate religion from the state, but the ambition and bigotry of churchmen have endeavoured to form a union, that the coffers of the state may be filled by the priest, and the heretic awed by its punishments.

In the second epistle, the romance of Bailly is exposed and refuted. By Plato's account of the island of Atlantis, the French astronomer was induced to make a long search; and, from his interpretation of traditions and etymology, he was firmly convinced that the fabulous stories of the ancients concerning Hesperian gardens must be referred to Hyperborean nations. Mr. Howard, with more judgment, traces these traditions to the scripture.

It is time to see from what mutilated relics of real facts these ancient traditions, the groundworks of which are every where commemorated in antique annals, can be much more naturally derived. In the traditions of a golden age, in the remembrance of the lost island Atlantis, of the Elysian fields, of the fortunate islands, of the inaccessible dry island, whose site is by no means determined by the orientals to be in the north, but indefinitely beyond or out of the bounds of the present earth, we may without any forced construction retrace the memory every where retained of the age of innocence, of a terrestrial paradise lost to man, of a once different habitation overwhelmed in the waters, and changed from its more happy primeval state. The great cause of this sad change is a prominent feature in all these traditions, and, as Mr. Bailly informs us, finds a place in the Chinese annals, where it is generally supposed to be least noticed. In all we find, as in Moses, ten generations of men preceding this great catastrophe occasioned by the crimes of that former race, from which a few only escaped to re-people the new world. In Sanconiatho a son of Uranus killed by his brothers, in Diodorus the virtuous Hyperion meeting a like fate, Siameck son of Caiamurath killed by giants, in the Persian annals evidently represent Abel killed by his brother Cain. In Diodorus, Hesperus

one of the descendants of Uranus taken up from the earth by the winds recalls the history of Enoch in sacred story. Every where, as in the writings of Moses, giants appear in those times, whether by them are meant men of extraordinary stature and strength, or powerful and wicked men. In all these annals we find men at first virtuous, finally corrupted, and perishing in a general deluge. p. 228.

The strange hypothesis of Bailly, that there was a super-abundant population in the north, is well combated in this letter; and it is clearly shown from all history, that the middle region of Asia was the centre of population, from which it diverged in various directions, making a slow progress towards the north.

In the third letter, Mr. Bailly's pretended antiquity of the world, founded on Hindoo dates, is examined. This subject has been lately so well investigated in India, Great-Britain, and Germany, that we were surprised to see so little use made of the papers published by different societies, by which the allegations of Bailly would more effectually have been confuted.

The fourth letter brings before us the different monuments of nature, which Buffon made the basis of his strange system of a comet carrying off a portion of the sun's mass, which by degrees became cool enough to be the habitation of man; and, as it continues according to him to grow colder, it will lose its inhabitants in the course of less than a hundred thousand years. This system contains so many *gratis dicta*, that a philosophical reader would have been contented with a few words of refutation; but, as the author has given an ample view of it, and shown its many inconsistencies, readers who have more leisure will not find their time lost in going through the whole of this letter. On the unfounded opinion among philosophers, that the sea is gaining on the eastern side, and losing on the western side of continents, the following just remarks are made.

The example which Mr. Raynal adduces of the invasion of the sea upon the land from this general current is rather unlucky. Chinese industry, says he, has been for ever struggling against this general motion of nature from east to west constantly menacing them with submersion. The fact is, that the eastern coast of China has been invariably gaining upon the sea instead of losing from its invasion. Chinese activity has only done what the Egyptians and Dutch have done on northern or western coasts, and what is daily executing on many others. They raised dykes in order to gain somewhat sooner to cultivation those shallows which the sea was ready to relinquish, and which the successive deposits of great rivers were beginning to raise above the ordinary level of its waters, and by advanced mounds, for some time exposed to the fury of the

waves, defended these new acquisitions from the effects of extraordinary tides and tempests. The Chinese history uniformly acquaints us, that its eastern provinces on the mouth of the Yellow River were formerly covered with water, and were by industry successively drained and extended. The yet nature of this flat and marshy country sufficiently corroborates this account. The sea coasts where there are neither bays nor rivers change not perceptibly, unless by sudden and uncommon accidents of storms, tempests, or earthquakes. Instead of the pretended rotation by which the sea gradually gains on one side what it loses on the other, by a general motion, which is at least doubtful, it is evident that whatever slow changes, unless by partial accidents, do take place, are universally in favour of the land. Whenever the coast presents steep rocky cliffs, either the constant dashing of the waves undermines their foundations, or the wind and weather wear away their mouldering summits and faces, and detached fragments are constantly falling at their feet. However slowly, these at last, by their decomposition, present a more indestructible fence against the fury of the ocean, a sloping beach on which its waves have no hold. *Wherever*, on the contrary, almost level plains or sloping shores conduct to the limits of the ocean, it is evident that every part of the higher lands, from the most elevated mountain to the smallest mount, washed down by rains and torrents, slowly contribute to raise these shores. The hardest rocks on the mountain's summit decay, and their fragments are carried down by torrents, and by these conveyed to rivers, where pulverized at length, they both raise the beds of the rivers themselves, and by their inundations add something to the adjacent plains.' p. 356.

Buffon is fond of his great mass of hot materials gradually cooling; Raynal must have his eastern seas to destroy continents; Pallas finds volcanic fires in all parts; Italian travellers are disturbed with mouldering lava; shells and bones are irrefragable proofs, to some reasoners, of the immense antiquity of the earth. All these opinions are judiciously examined: the conclusions of some are weakened, and the fears of others are allayed.

The opinions of Wallerius, De Luc, Saussure, and others, on the nature of light, heat, and fire, are discussed in the fifth epistle. After some remarks, Mr. Howard properly leaves this subject to future discussions; and philosophers, for a considerable time, may engage in deep researches, before the true nature and operations of each shall be ascertained.

In the former letters we have gone through the traditions of the ancients and the hypotheses of the moderns: in the sixth we approach the light, being led to the opinions of a wise and religious philosopher. The formation of the earth, according to the system of Wallerius, founded on the first chapter of

Genesis, is the subject of this letter. As many of our readers, perhaps, have not strictly attended to that chapter, this explanation of it will afford them new pleasure, and enable them to treat the scoffs of infidels with the contempt which they deserve.

Our author's opinions, not very different from those of Wallerius, are given in the seventh letter. The great difficulties for our comprehension are the formation of globular bodies out of the chaotic mass, and their motion round the sun.

We will not say that our author has entirely removed our doubts; for what finite being can enter into the grand scheme of omnipotence? Let him, however, speak for himself with regard to the effect of almighty power on the first materials of worlds.

As many persons may think that God, even in this moment of the plenary exertion of his power, employed, wherever possible, the agency of laws already established, and that, in the attempt to explain nature, recourse to the direct action of the Deity is only to be had when other means seem inadequate to the effect, I shall venture to hazard a few conjectures on the possibly more immediate causes of the division of the terrestrial abyss, and of the subsequent division into several parts of the great body of light, which, according to Moses, happened at distinct periods of the creation. It should seem, indeed, that the first extraction of light from darkness, or the local separation of the great body of light from the terrestrial mass, must be attributed to the sole will of the Creator. But the division of the latter into several portions, and their projection into space, may perhaps be looked upon as its consequence, and accounted for by laws which yet seem to obtain in nature, and were then no doubt already impressed. The division of terrestrial matter into various planets was perhaps effected by the explosion which the sudden escape of the great body of light occasioned in the abyss. This explosion may be assimilated to, and accounted for in the same manner as, the explosion which takes place in the Leyden bottle when the electric matter disengages itself from it, or may be compared to the explosion caused by the fiery fluid escaping from gunpowder as soon as it is in contact with exterior fire. This great explosion of the abyss dispersed to various distances its several particles, from whence the several planets were formed by the attraction, within certain distances, of smaller to larger particles of matter. But this force of projection was instantly moderated by the gradually overcoming attraction of the immense body of light; and the planets, as soon as formed, were arrested at several distances in their progress, and forced to turn round this great centre. So much in explanation of the division of the great terrestrial mass. Let us now turn to the possibly more immediate cause of the division of the great body of light, which did not take place till the fourth day.



‘ On the third day of the creation, the various substances of which the planets are composed received the law of gravitation towards their respective centres. The specific density in proportion to the diameters of these planets was necessarily much increased by their consolidation. The action and re-action between them and the luminous body became stronger: from their increased density the planets fell nearer to this last; and thence the near preffion of this multitude of denser bodies became at last preponderant, and caused the globe of light to burst and fly off in all directions. The great affinity of its parts soon rallied the scattered elements in various points, and formed them into so many suns. Projected with prodigious force into space, each of these globes drew after it in its course such planets as lay in its way: soon, however, the united attraction of these very bodies which it had carried off in its suite producing its full effect on it retarded and finally stopped the force of its projection. Limited and repelled also by the sphere of activity of other similar bodies forming at the same time in its neighbourhood, this sun became fixed, preserving only of its first impulsion internal motion and rotation on its axis. In other respects each sun became stationary and centre of its particular system. It is from thence that from that moment, by its attraction and repulsion, or by the constant flux and reflux of that vivid matter of which it is the source and centre, each of these suns regulates the courses and revolutions of the planets subjected to its rule; from thence each maintains the equilibrium and balance with all the other luminous bodies and their divers systems which surround it in the whole extent of space. Such or some such explanation may perhaps, without constant recurrence to new exertions of the divine power, account for the division and projection of the terrestrial abyss and of the great body of light, by the application of laws which seem to have been established immediately before the distinct epochs assigned to these events by Moses.’ p. 492.

In his comment on the first chapter of Genesis, he justly observes, that the three first days do not necessarily mean days so short as ours. The period of 24 hours first took place, when the sun and moon were visible to the earth. We are surprised that he did not take notice, from the text, of another circumstance. As the days, before the appearance of the sun, might contain a great portion of time fit for the operations to be performed, so there might be a considerable interval between the days. Thus we may account for the marine productions in many parts of the continent, from the fish having been so much longer in existence than man, from whose creation only we are enabled with any degree of precision to calculate duration. All before him is lost in obscurity.

In the eighth epistle, we meet with observations on the state of the antediluvian earth, with poles perpendicular to the orbit

of the earth, and on the changes produced by the deluge. The earth is gradually returning to its ancient position, which it will take some millions of years to accomplish. At the close of this letter, Dr. Hutton's theory is examined; and his use of the word *nature* is properly reprobated.

‘ His all-powerful, wise, and ever-living organical and organizing nature is a non-entity, a mere metaphysical abstract idea. By that word nothing can be understood but inanimate senseless matter, and the aggregate of those laws by which it is governed. If a superior intelligent Being formed at-will the whole substance of this universe, and impressed on it those laws by which it is with infinite wisdom directed to the purpose of his design, it is immaterial whether he willed it six thousand or six millions of years ago. The first opinion, with respect at least to the present state of this our planet, is supported by every evidence which reason can require: the second is possible, and on that possibility only can be grounded.’  
p. 563.

In the ninth letter we have a summary of the contents of the work; and the author comes to a just conclusion in the following extract.

‘ If my feeble efforts have been able to make you, sir, perceive that it is not impossible to conciliate the present formation and apparent changes which have happened to this globe with the short duration generally allotted to it, I shall have fulfilled my aim. Where I have only been able to throw some scattered lights, others more deeply read in the history of nature and of man may be competent to carry the full blaze of conviction. The uncertainty of human reason, by some too fondly held up as an unerring guide, will still however render every decision controvertible. That reason limited, but truly sublime when not blinded by passion, has unfortunately as many shades as the countenances of men. It is not always with great genius or talents she resides; they have frequently exhibited the example of the most eccentric wanderings: but it is ever with the sober few that she takes refuge. To her meditations nature presents the most unbounded and most magnificent spectacle. Let us dare to investigate her wonders: but let us still be diffident of an heated imagination which may hurry us beyond the limits which are assigned to the powers of man, and let us not too far flatter ourselves to penetrate by the sole help of reason into the full secrets of her origin. Nothing is too daring, says Horace, for the aspiring mind of man; but it is when it overleaps its prescribed circle that its weakness becomes most manifest. No opinion so absurd, no folly so extravagant, as not to have been at some time adopted by men of otherwise superior parts. The Supreme Being has wisely guarded the great principles of morality by an instinctive sense of right and wrong, which the most impious and most licentious doctrines have never been able totally to pervert in the great

body of mankind: but he has abandoned the nature of this world to the disputes of the learned — *Mundum autem tradidit disputantibus eorum*; and it is not in our days that these will terminate? P. 597.

We have thus endeavoured to give our readers a sketch of a work which we have read with pleasure; and the style and manner in which our author's sentiments are conveyed, and the erudition contained in the notes, are the more agreeable, we will confess, from the side which he has taken. Fatigued with the trifling jests of many modern philosophers, disgusted at their absurd condemnation of the scripture, we are happy in finding one of our countrymen, with great resources derived from extensive reading, from travelling, from a reflecting turn of mind, untinged with such arrogance and folly, and eager to explain, not to destroy revelation. If at times he is rather prolix, we can pardon him, for he is always serious: if at times he is too severe upon modern philosophers, he is zealous for his cause, and detests persecution in them, in priests, or in princes. If at times foreign idioms escape him, we attribute the circumstance to his absence from his country. His work will, we are confident, be read with pleasure by all men who are attached to true philosophy; namely, that which is comprehended in the scripture; which, if the tyranny of the prince and the intolerance of the priest had not checked the due investigation of it, might have been efficacious in preventing the outrages committed under the veil of a false and specious philosophy. The injudicious proceedings of the promoters of tyranny and superstition naturally throw men into the opposite scale; and they will never rest till the ark of God shall be left to itself, or till divine truth shall gain a full ascendancy by its native energy.

*Letters and Correspondence, Public and Private, of the Right Honourable Henry St. John, Lord Viscount Bolingbroke.*  
(Continued from Vol. XXII. p. 369.)

AS it was the opinion of the British court, that some personal conferences between the secretary and the marquis de Torcy would be more efficacious than mere correspondence, lord Bolingbroke was sent to Paris, in the summer of the year 1712, to treat with the French minister. In a letter to the earl of Dartmouth, he mentions the disputes respecting the duke of Savoy and the elector of Bavaria; and thus speaks of an interview which he had with Louis XIV.

‘He received me in a very gracious manner, he talked a considerable time with me, and the substance of what he said, as near

as I can remember, for his speech was extremely quick, was, that he had ever had the highest esteem for the queen; that she had proceeded in such a manner as to turn that esteem into the sincerest friendship; that he hoped she was satisfied he had done every thing on his part, which might facilitate the peace that he was pleased to find we were so near concluding; that there were some who had used all endeavours to obstruct it, but that, God be praised! they would not be long able to do so, that God would hinder them from giving the law which they pretended to; that the' [recent] 'success of his arms should make no alteration in him, and that he would make good all he had offered.' Vol. iii. p. 16.

After the return of the viscount to England, Prior the poet was for some time the chief conductor of the negotiation. Many of his letters are inserted in this work. They are, in general, written in that style of pleasantry which Prior so much affected. A short specimen follows:

'The young gentleman' [the pretender] 'parted on Wednesday from Liori; he is gone to Châlon (sur la Marne) about an equal distance from Paris as Rheims; is very melancholy, but much resigned. The elector of Bavaria, they say, is gone; but he has a little w—— upon the bank of the river, between this and Paris, *pour tuer le tems.*' Vol. iii. p. 54.

With regard to the manner in which queen Anne endeavoured to combine, with her eagerness for peace, an attention to the interests of her allies, Bolingbroke observes, in a letter to the duke of Shrewsbury—

'You know, my lord, very well, that the rule which the queen long ago laid down, was not to delay her peace, after the ungenerous and ungrateful treatment which she had met with from her allies, if they persisted in refusing to treat; but the French were at the same time told, that if the confederates should submit, and show a readiness to proceed in the negociation of peace, her majesty would then be obliged in justice to keep measures with them. In short, that her conduct must be regulated to a great degree upon theirs.

'This resolution, which the queen continues to think agreeable to her honour and her interest, is still in force, and must therefore be applied to the present case.

'Her majesty inclines the rather to have the French ministers reminded of this, because they seem, notwithstanding the concurrence of the Dutch, and, I may add, of the emperor too, and although the allies are grown more reasonable in their demands, still to desire that the queen should precipitate the conclusion of her peace, and leave the whole confederacy at their mercy. But, however the designs and measures of the French court may vary, and their ministers be elated with a little turn of fortune, the queen

goes steadily on, and speaks the same language to them now as she did in August. Your grace will therefore let the king know, that when the mutual interests of England and France are settled, as they will be if the propositions contained in the first part of this letter are accepted, the plenipotentiaries of Great Britain shall publicly declare in the congress, that they are ready to sign with France, and shall therefore call upon the allies to quicken their negotiation, and conclude without loss of time; that, in order to render this peace general, and to finish the treaty with the same candour and generous desire of restoring the peace of Europe with which it was begun, her majesty expects that the plenipotentiaries of France should, at the same time, instead of avoiding to confer with the ministers of the confederate powers, show a readiness to treat with all of them; and, laying aside the spirit of negotiation, as soon possible, to close their great work. And, upon reviewing the present state of the differences between France and the several allies, the queen does not see that the general peace can be long deferred, if all parties meet with a good disposition to bring it about. If the confederates should either seek unnecessary delays, or make unreasonable demands, which, in the present circumstances of their affairs, it is not very probable they will, her majesty, who has induced them to treat, will, by the same measures, engage them to conclude; at least, she will think herself justified, after these repeated warnings, and this unexampled patience, to sign without them in this case, as she would have done had they still continued directly to refuse to treat at all. Your grace will please to add, that, to make these measures effectual, nothing will be wanting but that the ministers of France be instructed to treat in the same spirit; not to try the common expedients of negotiation, but to go at once all those lengths which the desire of peace may render eligible.'— Vol. iii. p. 315.

Her majesty, however, did not pay sufficient regard to her allies in this negotiation; and, by a more prudent and honourable conduct, she might have obtained better terms for herself.

When the secretary speaks of the confidence and satisfaction of the Dutch, the assertion is not strictly true, as it is known that they were dissatisfied, and acquiesced only from constraint.

'The letter of the states-general to her majesty, certainly answers the design, which your lordship \* intended by procuring it; it gives the clearest testimonies of submission to, and confidence in, her majesty, and therefore would effectually silence the clamours of those, who might pretend to deplore the hard fate of the Dutch,

and to insinuate their dissatisfaction. But, my lord, if France will be tractable, we must now close, and cease any longer to consider who is in, and who out of humour. Those who wish the peace, and that is, your lordship knows, a vast majority here, have been dissatisfied, that the treaty was not more precipitated; but we hope it will appear to the cooler reflections even of these people, that her majesty has pursued a plan worthy of herself in staying to the last moment for her obstinate, ungrateful allies; and in signing resolutely, without any regard to entreaties or representations, when the last moment comes.' Vol. iii. p. 453.

After the conclusion of the treaty of Utrecht, the affairs of the north drew the particular attention of Anne and her ministers. The danger to which the Swedish realm was exposed in the absence of Charles XII. required the interposition of other powers; and the queen's interference was exerted in the following manner.

'I sent' (says Bolingbroke) 'to the Swedish minister, and when he came to my office, I told him, I had the queen's particular order to let him know, that although the weight of the late war, in which her majesty was engaged, had made it impossible for her to act in such a manner, as her inclination, and the general interest, would have guided her to do; and although the conduct of the northern powers, each in their turn, has been such, as to make it, for the most part, doubtful whether the cases, implied by her majesty's treaties, exist or not; yet the queen could not acquiesce in seeing Sweden subdued, and the balance of the north destroyed; and, on the other hand, she could not suffer the Swedes, by virtue of defensive obligations towards them, to draw her into the support of the war, and to be a partner in all new designs, grafted upon the original quarrel. That, therefore, her majesty was ready to enter into all reasonable measures, to preserve Sweden from that ruin, which seems to hang over the kingdom; but the Swedes must make the first step, in order to capacitate the queen, and the rest of their friends, to save them. A step, which if the king of Sweden would have made some time ago, his affairs would not have been reduced to the miserable circumstances they are now in; in short, that the queen expected they should declare themselves ready and willing to treat, that they should make this offer either directly, or through her majesty, to their enemies, and that they should name Hamburgh, Bremen; Lübeck, or some one or two other commodious places, to open a congress at. That this step being made by Sweden, the northern allies could not refuse, and her majesty would declare she expected they should not, to begin a treaty, since they have always pretended to be ready to enter into negotiation, and have thrown the blame of not doing it upon the king of Sweden.

'I endeavoured, in the best manner I was able, to show this

minister, however irremediable their misfortunes were, unless they fell into the measures which those powers prescribed, from whom only they could expect assistance; I urged to him, the little prospect there was of bringing the states-general, on any other foot, to concern themselves for Sweden. I gave him to understand, that he might be assured, France, from whom, as guarantee of the treaty of Westphalia, and a natural friend and ally of Sweden's, they expected much, would be of the same opinion. I showed him, on the other hand, what they had to hope for; if once a treaty was begun; and insinuated to him, that the queen, in that case, would be of opinion, as I suppose the rest of their common friends would be also, to begin by agreeing a suspension of arms, leaving things on all sides in their present posture, till, by a treaty of peace, they should be finally adjusted. After these several communications, in the reasonableness of which, Gyllenberg very thankfully and decently acquiesced, I observed to him how necessary it was, that the Swedish ministers who shall be appointed to treat, should be furnished with absolute powers, unclogged with those preliminary conditions, contained in the powers given to the count de Vellingh. I convinced him, that such as these would dissolve the congress as soon as it met, and that the giving of others would draw into no consequence, which the king needed to apprehend, since by private instructions to his ministers, he might direct them to make what use he should think fit of the authority delegated to them. On the whole, he promised me to write, and I hope the answer will be such as the interest of Sweden requires, since not only all that king's ministers on this side of the world, do sufficiently own the necessity there is of putting, by a treaty, an immediate stop to the torrent of success which runs against them; but I likewise know, that the count de Vellingh has sent an express to his master, to ask new full powers of the sort abovementioned, as the only means left to save his kingdom from immediate ruin." Vol. iv. p. 125.

Remonstrances were at the same time made to the adversaries of the Swedes; but they were not so efficacious as the pacific queen wished them to be.

The peace with France was not improved by a definitive agreement for the regulation of trade; for the house of commons refused to sanction the commercial treaty. Upon this subject, the secretary writes in a liberal strain:

'The whigs, who have been beat off from all their other attacks, seem to fix themselves on the treaty of commerce, as their last hold, and endeavour to raise a ferment among the people, by scanning, straining, and misrepresenting every article, nay, every syllable in it; and propagating with wonderful industry, that all trade whatever with France is prejudicial to Britain. The French ministers will easily see, I suppose, and if they do not, they ought

to be shown, that this, among other views, is calculated to hinder those prejudices, which our people have been possessed with against France, and which begin now to wear off, from being extinguished; to keep up the strangeness between the two nations, and to preserve such a temper of mind, in our people, as may dispose them, upon every slight occasion, to a dispute with France. Now the most effectual way of preventing this, is certainly an open and advantageous commerce between the two kingdoms. Nothing unites like interest; and when once our people have felt the sweet of carrying on a trade to France, under reasonable regulations, the artifices of whigism will have the less effect amongst them. As this is true, so it is proper enough to be insinuated to the French ministers, and, it is to be hoped, will make them more easy in the settlement of such points, as remain still to be decided, relating to commerce.' Vol. iv. P. 153.

The negotiations with Spain were not completed without considerable difficulty. The concerns of the Catalans and of the Portuguese occasioned much dispute; and various commercial points were the grounds of contest and delay. These circumstances induced Bolingbroke to expostulate on the subject with Don Patricio Lawless (for sir Patrick Lawless, an Irishman, had thus *Hispanicised* his name,) in a long epistle dated November 21, 1713, in which the subsequent passages occur.

‘ It may be said, without vanity, and with great truth, that whatever has been either easy or honourable for Spain, has been either directly procured by the queen, or brought about in consequence of what had been done by her. To set this matter in its full light, it is only necessary to recollect the several bargains, as far as Spain is affected by them, which were made before any correspondence was opened between the queen and his catholic majesty, and those which have been entered into since. And now, what appearance must it have to the world, and what effect must that appearance have on the minds of men, if the interest of her majesty should be some of the last to be determined at Madrid? But this is not all. The affairs of Europe are still embroiled; the constitution of this government exposes our politics to strange vicissitudes, and runs us into unaccountable extremes.

‘ Is it reconcileable, therefore, to the rules of prudence, not to prevent any incident which may create a new ferment here? which, considering the figure that Great Britain has of late years taken upon her, and is still in condition to make, must to a great degree affect the affairs of Europe in general, and of Spain in particular. I believe I have formerly acquainted you with the purport of a defensive alliance made, in 1703, between her majesty and the king of Portugal. Suppose now that her majesty should be obliged, before her treaties with Spain are concluded, and their ra-



tifications exchanged, to put this treaty in execution; and the king of Portugal has already made demand of the ships and men, which, by virtue thereof, are to be furnished in his defence. If we enter into any measures of this kind, our treaties being concluded with Spain, the defence of Portugal will be our only care, nothing will be able to carry us farther. But should a body of the queen's troops, and a squadron of her ships, appear in this cause, before the renewal of friendship between our two nations was solemnly ratified, who could answer for the advantages which might be taken, and the improvement which might be made of this step, both by the enemies of peace abroad, and by that number of factious people here, who desire nothing more than a renewal of our former quarrel, and a revival of the war? Be pleased to carry this thoroughly on, and to see how far the war in Catalonia is, and may be, affected by delays used in finishing our treaties?

‘It was upon a confidence that no difficulties, of the nature of those, which at this time obstruct the conclusion of the treaty of commerce, would be insisted on; it was on a confidence that, the king of Portugal having departed from that demand of a barrier on the continent of Spain, which gave so much offence to the Spaniards, the catholic king would, instead of raising any new demands, have complied with the few which then remained, that her majesty withdrew her own forces out of Catalonia, stopped the supplies which she used to furnish to the imperial troops, and laboured so zealously and so successfully to deliver Spain of all foreign troops, and, as far as in her lay, to put that kingdom into absolute peace. But can it be expected, can, if I may say so, the queen justify either to herself or to her people, that being disappointed in both these views, that every minute objection becoming strong enough to hinder the court of Spain from concluding with her, that the abatements, which the king of Portugal had made in his former demands on Spain, having only served to produce new ones upon himself, her majesty should act very vigorously towards completing the reduction of the Catalans? Whereas, if the queen is no longer concerned in any dispute with Spain, either on her own account or on account of Portugal, she will be able to assume another air; and will, in this instance, and in several others, which it is not hard to foresee, prove as useful as she is a sincere friend to the catholic king.

‘In a word, sir, when we put the restraints which we lie under, the inconveniencies which we actually feel, and the many fatal accidents we are exposed to, whilst affairs continue between Great Britain and Spain in the present uncertainty, in the balance against those points which are still controverted at Utrecht, the latter appear such trifles compared with the former, that I cannot express to you the astonishment nor concern wherewith our ministers are struck. I may tell you likewise, in confidence, that the queen is grown extremely uneasy at this situation of affairs, not only with

respect to what may pass abroad, but with respect to her administration at home.

‘ You are so well apprized of the nature of this government in general, and of the particular circumstances of our parties at this time, that I need not go about to show you what difficulties at home are created by a dubious state of business abroad. I shall only point out to you one consideration, which is of weight, and deserves very serious attention: a new parliament is elected, and the two houses must now, in a short time, assemble; the queen will be obliged to give such a turn to their deliberations, and to make such demands of the commons, as shall be proportioned to the state of the affairs of Europe, which subsists at that time, or which she then foresees, in the course of the ensuing year, likely to take place: if, therefore, we remain, either on our own account or on account of Portugal, uncertain what correspondence, whether a good or bad one, may be entertained betwixt the queen and his catholic majesty, provision must be made in parliament, you know, sir, for the worst. The making the provision will sour the minds even of the best disposed; and this sourness of mind will not fail to be acted upon by such as desire to prevent a perfect reconciliation. But if this reconciliation of all differences be perfected before the meeting of parliament, the proceedings of the two houses will, without dispute, be such as are most proper to cement this reconciliation, to enable the queen by all means, whether of force or of good offices, to prosecute the accomplishment of the great work of a general peace, and absolutely to defeat the designs, and to cut off the hopes, of those who still persist in their attempts to keep the war alive where it rages, and to rekindle it where it has been extinguished.’ Vol. iv. p. 357.

The affairs of Ireland were, at this time, in an embroiled state. The zeal of the whigs in that kingdom gave great disgust to the ministry; and Bolingbroke recommended the exertion of spirit against that party. Writing to the duke of Shrewsbury, he says,

‘ The whig party have a majority, and, if they are suffered to go on, will sit, I suppose, alone in the house; they may perhaps give the supply, and utter general expressions of duty and zeal for her majesty, but the particular persons, against whom their resentments are to be shown, cannot be exposed to their rage, in honour, in justice, in prudence. I will only say, upon this occasion, that your grace’s friends here are all persuaded that all the money which the Irish house of commons is asked to give, is not to be put into competition with the safety of one of our friends, much less with that of our whole body, and yet our whole body is at stake in the present contest. Should that faction rise and prevail in Ireland, against which we have done so much in Britain, the consequence

in both places is obvious. Should the farther supply, after the three months' bill, not pass, I would not call it a misfortune. There are ways of supplying this deficiency, and among others, I dare affirm, that the commons of Britain would be thankful to her majesty, if she rendered it necessary for them to do it.

'In a word, on one hand, there is the supply, on the other (and that seems the only composition which the whigs are ready to come into) there is sacrificing our friends in Ireland, who are the weakest; irreconcilably and justly provoking our friends in Britain, who, God be praised! are the strongest. The proceedings of the whigs have, I make no doubt, prepared your grace to expect that the queen will take more vigorous measures; and show her inclinations faster than she first intended. She therefore has signed the usual letter for translating the bishop of Raphoe to the archbishopric of Armagh, and will I believe, as to the other bishoprics, signify her pleasure in a very few days. It will be happy, if these admonitions serve to remind some people of their duty, and enable your grace to prevail on them not to provoke clemency too far. Should these fail, I hope, and I believe, the queen will go every other length necessary to restrain the passion and fury of such proceedings, as the commons have given, and show a farther design of giving into. You, my lord, agreeably to the mildness of the queen we serve, and to the goodness of your own nature, have endeavoured by gentle treatment to reconcile, and by reason to persuade. After this, when this has proved vain, why should the government and the whole church-party, be afraid to charge a faction created by chance, preserved by our iniquities, and fattened by our misfortunes.' Vol. iv. p. 403.

But neither the whigs of Ireland, nor those of Great-Britain, could be prevented from a continuance of those cabals which embittered the close of the queen's life. Her death was ruinous to Bolingbroke's hopes of a long duration of power.

'The queen's death' (he observes, in an epistle to the earl of Strafford) 'was a very great surprize; for though I did not imagine she could hold out long, yet I hoped she would have got over the summer.

'Such little fellows as you mention, who want virtue enough to take the laudable ways of raising themselves in the world, and have, therefore, recourse to all the vile arts of sycophants and parasites, may talk of plots in favour of the pretender, but sure there never was yet so quiet a transition from one government to another, as the present is likely to be, nay, as the present already is, for we are at this moment in as perfect tranquillity as ever. I hope, for the king's sake, and for our country's sake, that the violent measures of those, who will not be found able to support them

when they have advised them, will not be pursued; indeed there is not, from his majesty's character of prudence and caution, reason to suspect that they will: the nation never was in a better temper, it would be a pity not to improve such a disposition.

'For my own part, I doubt not but I have been painted in fine colours to the king; I must trust to my conduct to clear me: I served the queen to the last gasp as faithfully, as disinterestedly, as zealously, as if her life had been good for twenty years, and she had had twenty children to succeed her; I do not repent doing so, nor envy those who did otherwise: on the same principle, will I serve the king, if he employs me; and if he does not, I will discharge my duty honestly and contentedly in the country, and in the house of peers.' Vol. iv. p. 582.

Though Swift's history of the four last years of Anne, and the report of the secret committee in 1715, in a great measure anticipated the substance of these volumes, as far as they relate to the negotiations, they may still be perused with advantage by the historical gleaner; and, to the general reader, they will afford a considerable supply of information and entertainment, though some of the letters may be deemed frivolous and uninteresting.

*A View of the Causes and Consequences of the American Revolution; in thirteen Discourses, preached in North America between the Years 1763 and 1775: with an historical Preface. By Jonathan Boucher, A. M. &c. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.*

WE here meet with an unpleasing combination of politics and theology, in a series of sermons preached during that critical period which prepared the Americans for a war with this country. This union of two discordant subjects we shall ever reprobate; and we feel particular satisfaction in this opportunity of exhorting our readers to attend to the consequences of making the pulpit the vehicle of political discussions, because these sermons do not refer to the disputes between the present contending parties in Europe, and our observations are perfectly free from all tincture of domestic politics. It is the part of a minister of Christ to explain to his auditors the whole nature of that spiritual kingdom which our Saviour came upon earth to establish, to prepare their minds for the reception of divine truth, to correct their errors and prejudices, abate the rage of passion, and promote universal benevolence. Here is full scope for the exercise of the greatest talents: he ought to have no inducement to look beyond his sphere for new matter;

and as well might he make agriculture, mechanics, trade, or manufacture, the theme of his discourses, as politics. If he introduces a political question, and parties run high in his neighbourhood, it is very improbable that all his hearers should be of the same opinion. Those who entertain different sentiments, will be hurt by the reflections from the pulpit; will deny that they are founded in truth; will complain of partiality; and, instead of feeling their passions alluaged by the time spent in religious exercise, will go home forgetful of their devotion, and full of resentment against the preacher for his sermon. This will occasion political discussion among his parishioners: they will be mutually exasperated; and the flame of discord may be kept alive by the well-meant though injudicious efforts of the minister.

A minister of the gospel is heard with great attention, because he is supposed to study particularly those subjects to which his discourses relate. Many persons will look up to him as a guide for their opinions and actions; and, if he swerves from christian duty either by design or inadvertency, many will be injured by his conduct. If one minister takes the liberty of preaching politics, another will follow his example: the discourse of one, not being likely to please all, will excite the opposition of others; and party discussions will be maintained with greater or less violence according to the temper and character of the minister. Something of this kind happened, as it appears from the discourses before us, in America: the occupants of the pulpits preached against each other; and frequent allusions were made to the recent sermon of the neighbouring or distant minister.

By such proceedings, the ends for which christians assemble on Sundays are entirely frustrated. Our ancestors endeavoured, in the times of superstition, to establish what they called the truce of God. The idea was a good one; and surely better-informed christians might learn from them to appropriate one day in seven to the same purpose; to banish on that day political discussion and party rage; and to devote it to spiritual concerns. By this use of the sabbath they would be better prepared to meet the evils of the times.

In political discourses, the minister has no rule to guide him. He cannot refer to our Saviour and his apostles; for they do not treat of forms of government, of the nature of usurpation, or of the strict limits of resistance and obedience. They have left us a general rule; that, when the maxims of this world interfere with those of the gospel, we are to prefer the latter to the former. If, in consequence of such conduct, we should be deprived of temporal benefits, we should endure persecution with joy for the sake of righteousness: if we cannot live in one city, we may retire to another; but, if our temporal rights,

Independent of religion, are invaded by the temporal magistrate, we are not debarred by our christian profession (and Paul exemplified the justice of this distinction) from claiming the privileges belonging to us in common with other subjects.

Upon these grounds all political discussions ought to be avoided in preaching. The pulpit, properly employed, will tend to heal the dissensions among men; but, when it is abused, it will increase them. These sentiments are confirmed by the effects of Mr. Boucher's discourses. The preacher took scriptural texts, and then ran into the heat of colonial disputes. Hence, when he was talking of Absalom and Achitophel, he was suspected of alluding to Washington and Franklin: when he investigated civil liberty (a question out of his reach), he was treated as an advocate for non-resistance; and his politics rendered him so obnoxious to the ruling party, that he was at length outlawed. It is difficult to determine, whether a proper line of conduct would have entirely secured him from the common effects of civil commotion; but it cannot be doubted, that, if he had confined himself to scriptural subjects, he would have furnished fewer grounds or pretences of complaint.

As we object to the mixture of politics with theology in a sermon, we also think that theology interwoven with politics is a disparagement to an essay. The work professes to give a view of the causes and consequences of the American revolution. The politician wishes to glean information on this subject from all quarters, and, referring to the situation of the writer, expects much satisfaction from his remarks; but he retires disgusted with a work, which preaches to him instead of explaining, which gives way to theological discussions, instead of pursuing closely the clue of political events. Thus the minister loses his aim, both as a preacher and a writer: he neither pleases the sincere votaries of religion nor the cultivators of political knowledge.

Independently of these objections, we do not see much profundity of thought in the work. The causes of the American revolution are not developed with a scrutinising eye; nor do we find those beauties of style and arrangement, which the subject demanded.

In the preface are some curious observations on revolutions, on which the examples of France and America are supposed to have thrown such light, that no future rulers of a state need to be apprehensive about them. The temper of the writer may be seen from a few passages.

After some splenetic effusions against the advocates of the American revolt, he says,

‘ During the continuance of the contest, it seemed to be a part

of the warfare, that each party should misrepresent and vilify both the cause, and the espousers of the cause, of their opponents. This, it is probable, is in some degree the case in all wars: but the propensity was particularly strong and virulent in the American war; and was the more inexcusable, as both parties, even in the moment when they were most guilty of it, were conscious that their indiscriminate abuse of each other was unwise and unjust, and such an indignity as, I sincerely believe, either of them would have resented if practised by any but themselves. But it should be recollected, that the American war was not a war of conquest, or to repel insult or aggression, but merely a party contest: and who does not know, that misrepresentation and abuse are the usual weapons of the partisans of parties? In speaking of party in this case, I speak indiscriminately of all those persons who in any manner abetted the cause of the insurgents, or took part with the friends of government — with but little consideration of the side of the Atlantic on which they dwelt. Indeed I know not how, with any shew of justice, to dissociate the views of the actual revolters in America from those of their abettors in Europe: if we may judge from their zeal and their exertions, their interest in its issue must have been equal. The former, it is true, in addition to their inflammatory speeches and writings, fought in defence of their cause: still it is not easy to determine whether more was done in America or in Europe to promote its success.

‘ Much to the credit, however, of both parties, the meanness, the malignity, and the mischievousness of this petty kind of war have now long been discontinued: and the great body of the people in both countries now have the spirit, as well as the wisdom, to speak of each other as there is reason to believe they always thought. And, in God’s name, let the contrary conduct be left to those numerous swarms of restless men, who are as naturally engendered in free governments, as serpents and other fierce and noxious animals are in warm climates! To such men it is a sufficient objection to the whole of any government, that in some of its parts it is imperfect, and in any instance corrupt: their taste, like their talents, is directed only to the pulling down; and their reforms terminate in destruction. They are also as active and persevering as they are dangerous. Those of them who reside in Great Britain, taking pleasure only in revolutions, unsatiated with that of America, and even with its gigantic offspring, the revolution of France, have long been, and still are, equally industrious in fostering a similar spirit of discontent and disunion in our sister kingdom of Ireland: and their brethren, the malecontents of America, were never more violent in their opposition to the existing government, whilst it was vested in Great Britain, till indeed they actually rebelled, than they have uniformly been to that which they themselves set up in its stead. This revolutionary spirit has been, if possible, still more unequivocally displayed, by the countenance and encouragement which, with

alarming steadiness, the persons of this description in both countries have uniformly given to the revolvers in France; though it is hardly possible they should feel any other interest in that revolution, than an hope and persuasion that it will be favourable to other revolutions — an hope in which there is, alas! far too much probability that they will not be disappointed.’ P. v.

This is the language of party zeal and animosity.

By a continuance of the war, instead of making peace in 1783, our author, short-sighted politician! thinks that the French revolution might have been prevented. Frequent changes of ministry are said to inure the people to revolutionary ideas. Another sentiment is better founded.

‘It is beyond even Mr. Burke’s abilities to shew, that, in point of principle, there is a shade of difference between the American revolution and the French rebellion.’ P. xv.

But the writer might have said French as well as American *revolution*. In another place, he observes,

‘In similar circumstances and situations, mankind continue to be what they have always been; and, with no other changes than merely such as times and places may suggest, continue to act the same part which they have always done. They still are jealous of power, still fond of change, and still easily persuaded to believe that they are not so well governed as they ought to be.’ P. xxvi.

How can they believe otherwise, when the historic volume is chiefly filled with details of the crimes of despotism?

His political opinions are also apparent in the following passage.

‘Founded as the present government of North America was under the auspices of the people, it must have been a solecism in politics had it not been weak. Strength and weakness, as the terms are here applied to these states, relate solely to their own intrinsic powers and resources as they operate on themselves, and without any reference to their ability or disability to cope with other states and governments. Now, as it was necessary (not indeed for the sake of the new government which was to be founded, but for the sake of pulling down the old one) that the whole of the revolution should assume and be of a popular cast, it was not to be expected that the people (now made their own rulers) should be disposed to lay any very rigorous restraints on themselves. Accordingly it has been observed that in the same proportion that any government is popular it is also weak; and hence (from having either seen, or experienced, the unavoidable weakness of such forms) the bulk of mankind in all ages and nations have thought, and do still think, it for their interest to submit to and live under systems more despotic; not, it may be supposed, without a proper sense of the many strong



objections which have often been urged against such forms, but influenced solely by the prospect which they hold out of greater security and durability.

' This consideration of the comparative strength and weakness of popular and despotic forms of government furnishes, if I mistake not, an almost irresistible argument against the conjectures of those speculative writers who have taken so much pains to make the world believe that all government was originally founded in the consent of the people. Had this been the case, all governments, at least in their origin, must have retained some of the strong characteristics of their first fabrication; they must have been at once free and weak. Whereas most of the old governments, of which history has preserved any records, were, at the period when they might be supposed to have come fresh from the hands of their first framers, if not free, yet strong; and, in general, monarchical.' p. lvi.

There is no real foundation for doubting, that ' all government was originally founded in the consent of the people; ' for, even if we admit that the first states were monarchical, the sovereigns must have ruled on the basis of popular consent. It is of little moment whether this sanction was tacit or was solemnly given: the very nature of government implies such consent.

A scheme of political transplantation, proposed by Mr. Boucher, will probably excite a smile. If no hope of permanent peace to Europe should remain,

' what is to hinder Great Britain, whilst yet she possesses fleets, wealth, skill, and spirit, and above all, whilst yet she possesses her ancient uncontaminated principles, from transporting her empire to the east? There, in the peninsula of India, without abandoning either her dominions in Europe, or in the West Indies, she might possess a territory inferior in extent only to the neighbouring kingdom of China; who, from her love of peace, would be as good a neighbour—as France, from its contrary character, always has been, and always will be, a bad one. There, happy in being placed beyond the troubled politics of Europe, blessed with a soil and a climate equal to any on the globe, with every possible circumstance in our favour for commerce, we might, without any of that great danger which must ever attend the attempt in an old establishment, repair and renovate our constitution: and there, undisturbed by republican projects, so abhorrent to the genius of Asia, we should need no alliance; but leave our posterity, if true to one another, at peace with themselves and with all the world.' p. lxxii.

Our author's calmness is evident from his own declaration:

' I feel, at this moment, infinitely less chagrin and indignation at the recollection of the confiscation of my property (though it was

my all), and the prescription of my person (by which I was solemnly declared to be a traitor), than I do on reading one of Buonaparte's gasconading and insidious proclamations — or the speeches of our own pretended patriots, who can bear to see their country at the feet of an insolent and inveterate enemy.' P. lxxxiv.

Other detached passages discover a little more of his spirit.

'To implicate churchmen in the general blame is an old shift of-republican policy. It was thus that Nero set Rome on fire, and then charged it on the Christians: and it was thus, too, that the Puritans of the last century, when themselves had brought the royal martyr to the block, impudently laid the blame on their own spawn, the Independents.' P. xxx.

'The great earl of Chatham himself is reported to have said, in his place in parliament, that he rejoiced that America had resisted: a declaration for which, in any government possessed either of energy or vigour, he would undoubtedly have been impeached.' P. xxxiii.

'We are deluded and distracted by a phantom, mis-called Philosophy; for, our demagogues call themselves philosophers, with just the same propriety that a poor lunatic, with his crown of straw, fancies and calls himself an emperor.' P. lii.

The volume contains thirteen discourses, which are illustrated by occasional notes. In the theological part there is nothing particularly valuable; but, as a specimen of this part of the work, we will quote some observations respecting uniformity of doctrine.

'We all profess to love truth; and, of course, to wish that it may generally prevail: and there is no reason to question our sincerity in this profession. Hence the general solicitude to make professytes: but, as truth is simple and uniform, it is impossible, when differences prevail, that we can all be in the right. And though it would be the height of arrogance in any man, or in any body of men, to boast presumptuously, that they only have found the truth, and all others are in error; yet, by one line of conduct, and by one only, we may all of us be so far in the right, even when we miss of the truth, as to be guilty of no damnable error. This line of conduct is, what scripture calls, all holding the same faith: an expression which by no means imports, that we are all bound, on pain of damnation, to think exactly alike even in points of faith. However much it is our duty, however desirable it may be that we should so agree, yet, considering the nature of the human mind, such an event is rather to be wished than expected. The God of all mercy does not require of his creatures more than he has enabled them to perform: and therefore, when a conformity in religion is required of us, it must be understood to be required only as far as

it is possible. God is true, though all men should be liars; and his scriptures are still invariably true, even when men most misinterpret them. These lively oracles, totally dissimilar to the mystic responses of Delphi, do not give ambiguous or equivocal answers. Whatever be the case with its professors, our religion is not at variance with itself: its doctrines, like their blessed author, are the same yesterday, to-day, and for ever. And when men, who appear to be equally intelligent and equally conscientious, are induced (as, alas, they often are!) to draw a different conclusion from the same premises, if it does not impugn the truth of God, it should not divide Christians from Christians. If, like the apostles and primitive Christians, we resolve to hold all the same faith, we must also resolve, with them, to continue united in doctrine and in fellowship; all speaking the same truth, and all taking due care that there be no divisions among us.

'We have all but one Lord, one faith, and one hope of our calling: we are all the spiritual children of the same heavenly Father; redeemed by the same precious blood of Christ; sanctified by the same gracious spirit; members of the same body, and joint-heirs of the same inheritance in the world to come: and therefore we are all under the same bounden duty to walk by the same rule, and to mind the same things, and to be knit together in one communion and fellowship.' p. 63.

As it is unnecessary, after the remarks which we have made, to dwell on the subject of each discourse, we shall conclude with expressing our opinion, that the statesman who may consult the work for political information, and the christian who may have recourse to it for religious instruction, will meet with equal disappointment.

*Jean of Arc, by Robert Southey. The Second Edition. 2 Vols. Small 8vo. 12s. Boards. Longman. 1798.*

IT is not our custom to take notice of a new edition of a work which we have already reviewed\*, unless the alterations be important, or the additions considerable. But the present poem demands our renewed attention, as it has undergone many alterations, and received various improvements.

This edition is introduced by some not unpleasing verses, addressed to Edith Southey, and by an advertisement, in which we are informed that the poem has been corrected with great labour. It was indeed proper that a work written in haste should be sedulously and accurately revised.

\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XVI. p. 191; and Vol. XVII. p. 181.

When this piece first appeared, Mr. Southey had not seen the production of Chapelain upon the same subject. Referring to this writer's poem, entitled *La Pucelle, ou la France Delivrée*, Voltaire observes, that, if he had not published it, he would have enjoyed some reputation among the *littérateurs*—*sans la Pucelle, il aurait eu de la réputation parmi les gens de lettres*. Our author, having at length procured a copy of the French piece, was sufficiently interested in the story not to think his time mis-spent in forming a regular analysis of it, which he has prefixed to his own work.

We are not pleased with the beginning of the altered poem.

' There was high feasting held at Vaucouleur,  
For old sir Robert had a noble guest,  
The bastard Orleans.' Vol. i. p. 89.

This passage has rather the appearance of a continuation, than of the commencement of a long poem.

Instead of presenting herself abruptly before the wounded Dunois in a forest, as in the first edition, Joan is introduced by her uncle to the governor of Vaucouleur, while he is entertaining that warrior in his castle. She is thus described.

' ————— there was no bloom of youth  
Upon her cheek, yet had the loveliest hues  
Of health with lesser \* fascination fix'd  
The gazer's eye; for wan the maiden was,  
Of faintly paleness, and there seem'd to dwell  
In the strong beauties of her countenance  
Something that was not earthly.' Vol. i. p. 94.

In the account given by the maid to Dunois, of the incidents of her life, and the rise and progress of her supposed inspiration, we observe great alterations. The narrative of the siege of Harfleur, the death of her father on that occasion, the support and instructions which she received from the hermit Bizarro, and other particulars, are omitted. Her birth and infancy are more properly represented with regard to place and circumstance; and, though some pleasing passages have been expunged, the substitutions, upon the whole, afford sufficient compensation.

That portion of the second book which was written by Mr. Coleridge, no longer forms a part of the poem; nor do we disapprove the omission, as the passages did not render the piece more interesting.

In the third book, when Joan has declared before the heads

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\* This barbarous expression ought to be banished both from poetry and prose.

of the church her consciousness 'of the God within her,' an addition is made which includes her answer to the interrogatory of a priest, respecting her first vision.

' Amid the mountain vallies I had driven  
My father's flock. The eve, was drawing on,  
When by the sudden storm surpriz'd, I sought  
A chapel's neighbouring shelter; ruined now,  
But I remember when its vesper bell  
Was heard among the hills, a pleasant sound,  
That made me pause upon my homeward road,  
Awaking in me comfortable thoughts  
Of holiness. The unsparing soldiery  
Had sack'd the hamlet near, and none was left  
Duly at sacred seasons to attend  
St. Agnes' chapel. In the desolate pile  
I drove my flock, with no irreverent thoughts,  
Nor mindless that the place on which I trod  
Was holy ground. It was a fearful night!  
Devoutly to the virgin saint I pray'd,  
Then heap'd the wither'd leaves that the autumn wind  
Had drift'd in, and laid me down upon them,  
And sure I think I slept. But so it was  
That, in the dead of night, saint Agnes stood  
Before mine eyes, such and so beautiful  
As when, amid the house of wickedness,  
The power whom with such fervent love she served  
Veiled her with glory. And she seem'd to point  
To the moss-grown altar, and the crucifix  
Half hid by the long grass;—and then I thought  
I could have withered armies with a look,  
For from the present saint such divine power  
I felt infused.—'Twas but a dream perhaps.  
And yet methought that when a louder peal  
Burst o'er the roof, and all was left again  
Utterly dark, each bodily sense was clear  
And sensible to every circumstance  
Of time and place.' Vol. i. p. 206.

This speech breathes an air of pious simplicity; and, notwithstanding occasional harshness of versification, it may be read with pleasure.

There are some additions, as well as substitutions, in the fourth book. To the former class the following speech of the maid belongs.

'Twas on the last night  
Before I left Domremi's pleasant home.  
I sat beside the brook, my labouring soul

Full, as inebriate with divinity.

Then Conrade ! I beheld the *rusſian* herd  
Circle a flaming pile, where at the ſtake  
A female ſtood ; the iron bruised her breaſt,  
And round her limbs ungarmented, the fire  
Curl'd its fierce flakes. I ſaw her countenance,  
I knew myſelf.' Vol. i. p. 244.

This paſſage correſponds with the aſſertion of ſome authors, that Joan, during her ſtate of proſperity, predicted her own death, and the manner of it. Abſtractedly from every idea of ſuperſtition, we may preſume that the heroine might dread a reverse of fortune, and might apprehend, in the event of her falling into the hands of the incenſed Engliſh, a ſubjection to a death of fire, on the imputations of heresy and witchcraft.

In the fifth book, there are ſcarcely any alterations ; but, in the ſixth, we find an inſertion that deſerves notice. In the firſt edition, a herald being ſent in vain to deſire the retreat of the Engliſh from France, a fierce conflict enſues on his departure. Additional circumſtances are now introduced, by which this part of the poem is rendered more ſtriking. The Engliſh general orders the meſſenger to be committed to the flames,

‘ That France may ſee the fire, and in defeat  
Feel aggravated ſhame !

‘ And now they bound  
The herald to the ſtake : he cried aloud,  
And fix'd his eye on Suffolk, “ let not him  
Who girdeth on his harnesſ boaſt himſelf  
As he that puts it off ! they come ! they come !  
God and the maid !”

‘ The hoſt of France approached,  
And Suffolk eagerly beheld the fire  
Draw near the pile ; ſudden a fearful ſhout  
Towards Orleans turn'd his eye, and thence he ſaw  
A mailed man upon a mailed ſteed  
Come thundering on.

As when Chederles comes  
To aid the righteous on his deathleſs ſteed,  
Swaying his ſword with ſuch reſtleſs arm,  
Such mightieſt force, as he had newly quaff'd  
The hidden waters of eternal youth,  
Till with the copious draught of life and ſtrength  
Inebriate ; ſuch, ſo fierce, ſo terrible,  
Came Conrade thro' the camp ; aright, aleft,  
The affrighted Engliſh ſcatter from his ſpear ;  
Onward he drives, and now the circling throng

Fly from the stake, and now he checks his course;  
And cuts the herald's bonds, and bids him live,  
And arm, and fight, and conquer.

"Haste thee hence

To Orleans," cried the warrior. "Tell the chiefs  
There is confusion in the English camp.

Bid them come forth." On Conrade's steed the youth  
Leapt up and hasten'd onward. He the while  
Turn'd to the war.' Vol. i. p. 64.

The seventh book claims no remark. The eighth is shortened by the transfer of a considerable number of lines to the next book; and the vision of the maid, which formed the whole of the ninth, is omitted; but it must not be supposed, that the poet would wish to lose the merit of this portion of the former work: on the contrary, he has given notice of his intention of publishing it separately. A nocturnal excursion of the maid to the camp of the duke of Burgundy is among the substitutions which such a defalcation rendered expedient.

On a survey of the tenth book, we find that the preparations for the battle of Patay are extended and improved. The following addition may be quoted as no unfavourable specimens.

————— Dunois meantime

Rode thro' the host; the shield of dignity  
Before him borne, and in his hand he held  
The white wand of command. The open helm  
Disclosed that eye that tempered the strong lines  
Of steady valour, to obedient awe  
Winning the will's assent. To some he spake  
Of late-earned glory; others, new to war,  
He bade bethink them of the feats achieved  
When Talbot, recreant to his former fame,  
Fled from beleager'd Orleans. Was there one  
Whom he had known in battle? by the hand  
Him did he take and bid him on that day  
Summon his wonted courage, and once more  
Support his chief and comrade. Happy he  
Who caught his glance or from the chieftain's lips  
Heard his own name! joy more inspiring  
Fills not the Persian's soul, when sure he deems  
That Mithra hears propitiously his prayer,  
And o'er the scattered cloud of morning pours  
A brighter ray responsive.' Vol. ii. p. 232.

The conclusion of the poem is unaltered: but it might, we think, easily have been improved. It is, at present, too tame and spiritless.

*Medical, Philosophical, and Vulgar Errors, of various Kinds, considered and refuted. By John Jones, M. B. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.*

THIS lively and respectable medical veteran has well employed the time, which disease compelled him to spend by his fire, in recapitulating many vulgar errors relating to medicine and philosophy. Possessed seemingly of a strong mind, and not unacquainted with medical authors; he has been able to correct many erroneous opinions, though some which he combats are now given up, and others which he endeavours to prove errors, are, in reality, supported by observation and experiment. But such is the good sense which pervades these pages; such the good humour of the author, that we scarcely wish him to have written one sheet less. Though much of his work may be deemed superfluous, many valuable remarks occur in it; and the spirit which animates even the mistakes, will preserve it from neglect. A few prejudices remain, which tinge the picture; for prejudices are generally violent, and lead, if not to 'envy, hatred, and malice,' at least to 'all uncharitableness.' We shall select a specimen of our author's manner from some of his early pages.

'Lecture-reading class-makers often find great trouble (so there is in splitting a hair) in those distinctions without a difference they make in their minute divisions and sub-divisions of fevers; with the view, probably, of appearing sapient to their pupils, rather than any real use they can possibly tend to. Probably the truth may lie between these and a late writer, who, with an ingenuous unassuming diffidence, ventures to prove, that of fevers there exists but one sort only; attributing all the variations in their symptoms to the different idiosyncrasies of patients, seasons, treatment, &c. &c. And what strengthens this gentleman's opinion not a little is the known fact, that two people never had exactly the same symptoms in any fever. Mere speculation, indeed, seldom does any good in physic, or even in philosophy or divinity; had a learned prelate, whose business only it was to prove to us the reality of the demoniac miracle, saved himself the needless pains he took to puzzle himself and his readers, in calculating to a scrupulous nicety the number of devils and half-devils allotted to each pig; our belief, taking the whole in the lump, as the inspired apostle relates it, would have been equally strong, and the bishop would have escaped much derision.

'There are very few visitors of the sick who do not kindly press the infirm person, though attended perhaps by a physician or two of great skill, to make a trial, in preference to his present medicines, of some very innocent thing; which, from their own



knowledge, they assert has been of the greatest benefit in just such a similar case.

'The first mistake of the busy interfering lady or gentleman may be (and a very dangerous one it is) in the similarity of the case. A second may be, that this innocent thing, except it be purely an article of food, can be of any use at all; none of our choicest medicines being innocent things when improperly applied. To a person of a tender face who must be shaved, can it be any recommendation of a razor, that it is as innocent as a lath, which can never be too keen in the hands of persons well skilled in its management? And if, by an innocent thing, be meant a medicine slow and weak in its operation; is it certain that the disorder may not gain a march upon it, by this trifling procrastination, and great loss of time; and this innocent nostrum be thus actually converted into a poisonous one, for in many cases *non progredi est regredi?*' p. 22.

'That, in the constitution of a Briton, most disorders proceed from a scorbutic taint in the blood,' is no longer a vulgar error, and it continued so only for a few years. That the stomach does not act in the operation of vomiting, is an error of the author, founded on an inconclusive experiment. That the colon is the seat of the colic, no one believes at present, except perhaps some fanciful etymologist.

That it is necessary to drink plentifully of water-gruel to assist the operation of a cathartic, we do not believe; and think, with our author, that the practice was derived from its utility, after taking indigestible resinous purgatives.

The remarks on bleeding, on the management of pregnant women, and of children, evince, for the most part, sound judgment and acute observation. The following passage we select as a general specimen, though our readers, we think, will easily perceive that we mean to offer some information, and that we agree with Dr. Jones in his opinions.

'That in difficult cases, where all other medical assistance has failed, electricity has performed surprising cures.'

For some time it certainly was looked up to, like tar-water, as a cure for almost all disorders; yet considering the great powers of electricity, as an instrument in philosophical experiments, it is not a little wonderful how very few stubborn disorders it has hitherto been actually known in reality to have cured. To evince which, Dr. Graham's confession, himself a host in this matter, is certainly proof sufficient; that, as I before hinted, notwithstanding he had an apparatus which far excelled every thing of the kind on the face of the earth, and had for ten years ten thousand more patients than any physician in Europe ever had, and consequently greater opportunities of discovering its virtue; yet upon his conscience pricking him, and to render mankind all the reparation in his power, that of

preventing them from being duped by other subsequent electricians; he openly confessed that, with all his electrical, aerial, magnetic, and coelestial apparatus, he never had in his life-time cured one person (though his book of well-attested cures is no small one, agreeable to the custom of puffing quacks), whom he might not have cured by the common usual means and medicines without it. As for the boasted cures of other electricians, it is natural enough to conceive that a man of a warm imagination, who, having purchased a wheel and apparatus to amuse himself with, from a strong desire to convert electricity to some more real use than to exhibit *hocus-pocus* tricks, should first impose upon himself, and then upon the public, strange fancied cures of many disorders. As to the question whether electrical experiments upon the human body have, in fact, done most good or harm, much may be said on both sides. On one side, interested persons have published numerous accounts of pompous cures by it. But of those perfectly healthy, who from twelve-penny shocks from itinerant electrical showmen, undergone from mere curiosity only, who have been thereby thrown into incurable palsies; though many such have happened, few of such cases, as people are a little shy in owning their disappointments, have been published. Of late indeed, since the invention of electrometers, electricians know a little more of the danger attending it, and therefore will run the less risque of shocking the nerves so terribly as formerly.

‘ All I can, from my own knowledge, say is, that after having seen a great variety of trials long persisted in, and conducted by professed electricians, in a variety of disorders, I had recommended trials to be made in, such as gutta serenas, palsies, chronic rheumatisms, scrophulous eyelids, &c. I never saw one successful cure. Nevertheless, I do not presume to suppose, that for the fugacious pains of low-spirited hysterical people, of strong expectations of cure, from *crede quod habes et habes*, some relief may not have been given them by electricity, as it very often has happened from nothing at all, that is to say, from Mesmer's tricks. I have never known it tried in the case of the suspension of vital action in drowned persons, where, from its being so powerfully active an instrument, I am inclined to believe it may possibly be of service, but I never had an opportunity of trying it. ’ p. 180.

Various errors are scattered through this volume, partly, as we have said, from a little prejudice, partly, because the extensive professional practice of the writer prevented him; in a great measure, from profiting by the experience of the latest authors. An examination of all his mistakes would detain us too long; yet we ought to blame such hasty and injudicious remarks as the following.

‘ That frost is owing to nitrous particles in the air. ’

‘ By no means; for spirit of nitre dissolves ice.

*' It is difficult to account how water quenches fire.*

*' It is not from its coldness, because hot water quenches it as well as cold. Not from its moisture, because spirits of wine will not quench it. It is effected by its keeping off the free access of air from it; for coals on fire, included in a vessel where no fresh air is admitted, though blown upon by a bellows included in the same vessel, will go out.*

*' Pit coal has of late been said to owe its origin to extensive woody tracts buried in the earth by the deluge, as appears by chemical analysis.*

*' The travels of such philosophers seem not to have extended far from their laboratories. Coal being well known to be a fossil like other minerals, with regular veins, strata, &c. and to have acquired none of its qualities from wood, turf, or any vegetables, any more than petroleum, Barbadoes tar, &c.*

*' That amber is of vegetable origin, the exudation of certain trees.*

*' It has been found at Kensington and in many gravel-pits.'*  
p. 92.

To these observations we may thus reply. Frost certainly does not arise from nitrous particles in the air: it is not, however, for the reason assigned, since that alludes to *spirit* of nitre, but because no nitrous particles ever exist in it. Water extinguishes fire by being converted into steam, which carries off its heat. Coal is certainly produced originally by vegetable matter, though by a more circuitous course than is usually apprehended; and amber is of vegetable origin, where-ever it may be found.

*Canterbury Tales. Volume the Second. By Sophia Lee. 8vo.  
7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.*

WHEN we noticed the preceding volume of these tales\*, we objected to the circumstance from which they derive their title: we thought that they would have appeared better without the Introduction. The present volume has furnished another reason for that opinion; it is occupied by one tale, which seems too long for a young lady to relate to her fellow-travellers.

The two volumes are not the work of the same lady, the second being written by the well-known authoress of the *Recesses*, and of the *Chapter of Accidents*, one of the best of our modern comedies. The present tale will not diminish the re-

\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XXII. p. 170.

putation of this lady. Many of its events are strange, and, we may say, improbable; but they are calculated to excite a strong interest; and those readers who begin the story of the two families will not, in all probability, desist till they finish it.

Emily Fitzallen, the dependent upon her godmother lady Bellarney, is represented as hoping to supplant Emily Arden, the grandchild of that lady, in her affection and in her will. When the will is opened, Miss Arden is found sole heiress. Her generous temper immediately prompts her to offer independence to the disappointed favourite.

"Recollect, my dear Emily," said she mildly, "how patiently I have borne, during my whole life, my grandmother's partiality for you; nor thus repine that she has at her death duly considered an affectionate, unoffending child.—Let me lighten your affliction, not add to it—I am not yet by law impowered to say how I will provide for you; but be assured the proportion of fortune I shall offer you, if I live to be mistress here, shall not disgrace your education, or my own; nor shall you ever have reason to think yourself forgotten by lady Bellarney, while Emily Arden represents her." Dashing with superlative insolence the hand of miss Arden from hers, the disappointed miss Fitzallen arose from her seat—the natural majesty of her form dilated by passion to an almost fiendlike grandeur—her large dark eyes flashing with super-natural brightness, and all the rage of her heart burning in scarlet tints on her cheeks.—"Who could mislead you so far, Miss Arden," cried she, when words came to her assistance, "as to make you believe I would ever owe any thing to Sir Edward Arden's daughter? Since he has taught you how to step between me, and the provision long mine by promise, keep it all—dear to you may one day be the acquisition—your whole fortune could not buy off my hatred, nor could the empire of the world buy off my revenge." P. 92.

From her birth miss Arden has been destined for the bride of her cousin the marquis of Lenox. The knowledge of this destination produces opposite effects on the two cousins; he loathes the bride of his father's choice even while she is unknown to him; but Emily has already given her affections to the man whom she has been taught to consider as her future husband. She meets him at a *fête* in the Highlands, masqued, and at a time when she is supposed to be in Ireland: her prepossession is confirmed by this meeting, but she has the mortification to hear from his own mouth, while he is addressing her in the language of love, that he never intends to mortify his eyes with the sight of his cousin, chosen for him by others—a rustic bred in the wilds of Ireland, the object of his constant ridicule. Mortified as Emily is at this discovery, she yet hopes to gain the heart of Lenox; and, with the assistance of

for Edward her father, she throws herself in his way as Marian, a peasant's daughter, and wins his affections. Sir Edward, with a view of strengthening this attachment, perpetually reminds him of his cousin. To avoid these solicitations, Lenox resolves to travel: he corresponds with Marian during this time; and sir Edward accompanies him, exulting in the success of the scheme. During their journey, a young Italian is recommended to them as one whose talents in painting and music would be useful and entertaining on their way, and whom it would be charity to employ. Lenox soon attaches himself to Hypolito: one evening he returns from a banquet:

"The day was not closed when he came home; but Hypolito, who was drawing, had already called for lights. As the marquis entered the magnificent suite of rooms allotted to himself and friends, his eye was led through them all, to the last, where he saw Hypolito deeply engaged with his subject. Shades over the wax-lights softened the glare, and gave the most feminine delicacy to the youth's naturally delicate complexion. His dark locks broke in redundant curls over the fairest forehead in the world, and played upon his throat and neck, the heat having obliged him to throw open his shirt collar. Suddenly he took the piece he was drawing, and, holding it behind the light, to survey it, the marquis could not avoid observing the whiteness and smallness of his hands. "For your own credit and mine," cried the marquis, gaily seizing his young favourite by the shoulder, "row, ride, drive, dig—do something to get rid of this white skin, and those delicate hands; for I cannot long stand the raillery I have encountered for this month past; and you must make up your mind to be considered as a woman in future, unless you contrive to get something more the look of a man." It was only by chance the marquis removed his eye from the landscape he had taken from Hypolito, to raise it to his face; but, dropping the drawing from his hands, it there became in a manner rivetted. ~~That~~ beauty, always too delicate for a man, had now the softest charm of woman, a mantling suffusion, a downcast grace. The dangerous silence that followed, was at length, in a faltering voice, broken by sir Edward's nephew. "And what embodied angel, then, are you," cried he, "dropt from the skies only to guide and guard me?"—The marquis spoke in the most winning voice; yet the charmer replied not; but, sinking on his shoulder as he knelt at her feet, hid there her blushes, and communicated her tremblings. — Let no one vaunt fidelity, who avoids not danger.—The marquis, already fevered by wine, found the intoxication now passing into his soul. The fair, the pure image of the distant Marian vanished from his memory; and he saw, heard, thought of, only this nameless, trembling, charmer. That she had followed him by choice, was very obvious;—for his sake had endured inconvenience, indignity, fatigue, and even servile degra-

dation. The entreaties he redoubled to extort her secret, bewildered more and more, every moment, a head and heart already confused and impassioned; nor were the tears she now profusely poured forth, wanting to confirm her influence over the surprised, delighted lover. How, then, were his feelings awakened, when she at length avowed herself the slighted, detested daughter of sir Edward Arden!'

P. 134.

That miss Fitz-allen should have been able to pass in Italy as a native, is not the most improbable part of this adventure. She has no attachment to Lenox; and her only motive for marrying him (for they are immediately married) is to revenge herself on Emily, whose movements she had watched, and whose happiness she resolved to blast. It is scarcely to be credited that characters of such unmingled evil are in existence; and even if there had existed a woman so wicked as to have formed such a plan, she must have united the powers with the wickedness of a fiend, or success would have been impossible. She expects no advantage from the marriage: even at the time, she is attached to and connected with another man; malignity, a pure, disinterested malignity, is her only stimulus.

Immediately after the ceremony Lenox seeks Sir Edward, to surprise him with the news of his daughter's disguise and marriage; but on this evening an earthquake destroys a great part of Messina. Sir Edward and Lenox escape; but Hypolito is lost. Lenox conceals his anguish, remembers Marian, and departs before his uncle with an intention of returning to England.

Near Lausanne he meets with two English females. One (rather curiously appareled for a traveller in Switzerland)

' was wrapt in a riding robe of black velvet lined with white satin, and girt to her waist by a cord of silver. A pale blue velvet hat with a plume of white feathers, was thrown carelessly on one side, yet tied under her chin by a white and silver handkerchief.'

P. 169.

He recognises his Marian, and rejoices in the loss of Hypolito, whose strange story he conceals. They join sir Edward; and the marquis and Emily are married at Naples.

The ceremony is scarcely concluded, when Hypolito attracts the eye of the marquis, and holds up her wedding-ring. He falls senseless at the sight. After his recovery his life is embittered by this undivulged connection, the more so when he learns that Hypolito is the miss Fitz-allen who has sworn eternal hatred to Emily.

It is utterly improbable that Lenox should have remained in the same city with this woman, knowing the power which she

possessed over him, and well acquainted with her diabolical character. To continue at Naples was almost to deserve the misfortunes that ensued. Valuable jewels are sent over to Emily by her father-in-law; they are seen and admired by every one; and Lenox soon receives this billet: 'Hypolito is charmed with the jewels; in three days' time they must be sent, or you abide the consequence.' An easy fiction procures them from Emily: a carriage and horses, the present of sir Edward to his daughter, are obtained in the same manner by miss Fitz-allen. Sir Edward sees her with the jewels, driving the carriage: he follows her, and learns that she whom he had imagined the mistress of Lenox is in reality his wife. He hastens to him, and gives him a pistol; and, at the first fire, Lenox falls.

The remainder of the story is equally improbable, and yet interesting. Sir Edward makes his daughter again assume the name of miss Arden; but, hasty and harsh as his conduct is, a sufficient excuse was to be found in his feelings; nor should Emily, after she has recovered her husband and learned all the past transactions, dread and dislike her father. A full explanation to him would have settled every thing; and the former marriage might have been annulled. Instead of this obvious conduct, Emily chooses to make sir Edward believe that she is dead, leave her child to his care, and retire with Lenox, and the little money arising from the sale of her jewels and other articles, to a cottage on her own estate in Ireland. They dwell there unknown and unsuspected for many years, till a discovery at length renders all happy.

Such is the history of the two Emilys, which, faulty as its plan certainly is, will be read with pleasure and emotion. The style is frequently inaccurate, and also affected. We often find sentences rendered obscure by omissions of connecting words.

'The grand enthusiasm of her nature blending the hallowed charm of another world with the wild visions of this, [which] the nursery leaves on every mind, at times almost led her to believe [that] her prayers were heard, and [that] heaven granted to her sorrowful soul this visionary intercourse with him, [whom] it no longer permitted her to behold.' p. 304.

Lenox, in his narrative to Emily after his recovery, says, 'on the ground were scattered flowers; which, as perishing, she had cast from her bosom. I gathered them up as devout pilgrims do holy reliques, and thrusting them into mine, bade them thus return to Emily.' This is a conceit fit only for the love-sonnet of one whose whole imagination is warmer than his heart. We do not admire the passage respecting sculpture: the deathly appearance of a statue, to us at least, affords no

delight. A turnpike road is described as wandering in graceful undulation. But no passage in the work struck us as being worse worded than the description of a scene near the Alps.

\* Over the deep and woody glen the house was seated in, impended an enormous mountain, on whose aged head hung tresses of snow, that threatened to inter the hamlet with every blast that blew: — beyond and around, far as the eye could reach, his numerous and ancient brethren, of different heights and hideous aspects, with grotesque yet chilling beauty, gave elevation to the mind, while they compressed the nerves.

A burlesque writer could scarcely have crowded a sentence with more incongruities, or concluded it with a worse antithesis.

We have pointed out the faults of this tale with some minuteness, because any production of Miss Lee merits attention. We cannot think the present performance equal to her *Recess*; but it is certainly the offspring of genius.

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*The Essential Principles of the Wealth of Nations, illustrated, in Opposition to some False Doctrines of Dr. Adam Smith, and others. 8vo, 3s. Sewed. Becket. 1797.*

POLITICAL science has, from the time of Adam Smith, been exhibited in a systematic form; but, with a strong basis in truth, have been intermixed some errors of importance. This consideration gave rise to the present work; and the writer has accurately studied the subject. He has made himself master of the system of the French economists; and, by a just comparison of the two systems, has detected the errors of both. The economists divide society into two classes, the productive and the unproductive. The former class consists of the proprietors and the cultivators of land; the latter, of those who neither possess land nor cultivate it. The economists err in placing the proprietors in the productive class: Smith says, they are in the wrong when they place artificers, manufacturers, and merchants, in the unproductive class; and he explains himself by a metaphor, or (as our author properly observes), he quibbles on the meaning of the word *barren*. The arguments of Smith are well confuted in the work before us; and indeed it should seem, that a very little attention to the meaning of the words *productive* and *unproductive*, might determine the question. For the proprietor who lets his land, and the merchant who only exchanges some products for others, certainly do not produce any thing. If the cultivators should be totally idle for three or four years, we might easily conceive what would become of the unpro-



deductive classes. But, though we should only call the class of cultivators productive, it does not follow that the others are useless. Several orders in them, as manufacturers, various artists, &c. are in the present state of society absolutely necessary; but they are not to be deemed of equal or superior importance to the class of cultivators. The chief attention of government is due to the latter class; and the mercantile and manufacturing classes will, in subserviency to that body of men, increase the wealth and happiness of the nation.

We not only agree with the author in the preference which he gives to the agricultural system, but also in the conviction, that we want no treaties of commerce, no encouragement to manufactures, to increase ten-fold the riches of our country. Let us look at home, and cultivate to the utmost; and the wealth, which is now expended in absurd mercantile or colonial projects, would, on our barren wastes and commons, produce real returns to the country.

It does not appear to be *essential* to a society, that the class of proprietors of land should subsist; for societies have existed without such a class. How, then, is it to be rendered essential to any society? The writer answers, by giving it an appropriate occupation. What the proprietors will say, may be conjectured from the clamour they make, when the state looks to them for defence. Yet our author seems to be in the right; and there are many advantages attendant on his system.

‘ The sum of twenty-five millions sterling, making between one third and one fourth of the whole income of Great Britain, being paid by the cultivators to the proprietors of land, and being, as appears, an actual burden upon the community, reason and sound policy point it out as the natural fund for the defence of the community. When thus applied by the legislature, the possessors of those rents instantly become not only an essential class in society; but an honourable class likewise; for honour will ever be freely allowed to those, whose profession it is to be ready to risk their lives in the defence of the community.

‘ A case of danger to this kingdom can hardly be supposed, that would require the military exertions of every fourth person in it, that is, that would absorb the fourth part of its yearly income, or in other words, the whole of the land rents. A part of those rents therefore may, without the risk of any deficiency in point of defence, be appropriated to the annual maintenance of the fourth essential class in society, namely, the essential and honourable class of instructors.

‘ A full fourth, or, perhaps, near a third of the annual national income being thus applied, or applicable to the support of the defenders and instructors, the people ought to be exempted from every species of taxation for the purposes of defence and instruction, that is, government ought to draw the whole of the national supplies in

all cases, from the rents of lands, as those rents afford an ample fund for every supposed case of emergency.' p. 53.

A proprietor of land, who starts at this proposition, would do well to consider the result to himself and the kingdom from the present system of taxation, to investigate the real cause of the high price of provisions, and to compare the present state of this country, in wealth, comfort, and population, with what it was in the reign of queen Elizabeth. He might then see the futility of Young's arguments, and would laugh at our coiners of imaginary paper money. The efficacy of the tax is thus calculated:

'The rent of the land owners I shall state at only 1-4th of the general produce; and four shillings in the pound of that rent demanded by government, is one 1-5th of it. Now 1-5th of 1-4th is equal to one 1-20th; that is, a land tax of four shillings in the pound would be equivalent to one shilling in the pound of the whole national income. In Great Britain are reckoned 72 millions of acres, and upwards. Now, of those 72 millions of acres, suppose 16 millions to be of little or no value, and that 16 millions more are required for horses, this will leave 40 millions for the sustenance of man. Of those 40 millions of productive acres, one twentieth, or two millions of acres, are demanded by government for defence. This government share, therefore, allowing eight acres for the sustenance of one man, would enable Great Britain to maintain 250,000 men. But it may be said, that a war establishment would require more than 250,000 men. I allow it. But would not a peace establishment require much fewer; therefore joining the two together, and taking the average, that average would be found not to exceed a land tax of four shillings in the pound; nay, would probably not exceed three shillings in the pound.' p. 83.

We thus sweep away all Kearsley's tax-tables, and we come back to the old system of our Saxon ancestors—the *trinoda necessitas* or threefold obligation, laid upon all possessors of land. Thus,

'when the land proprietors shall connect themselves more with government, and government shall disconnect itself more from the money-lenders, the athletic vigour of the nation will increase, and all apprehension of a financial convulsion will vanish.' p. 89.

The consequences of a deviation from this principle are well deduced; and if our author may be thought to extend his views farther than the generality of his readers, and may seem to them romantic in describing the good effects of the agricultural system, the principles which he states deserve examination; for, instead of fictitious riches and the alarms attendant upon the artifices of money-jobbers, they lay the foundation for real wealth, and the true prosperity and honour of a country.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

## POLITICS.

*Earl Moira. By a Son of St. Patrick. Small 8vo, 2s. 6d.  
Harding. 1798.*

THE peer whose title introduces this pamphlet, has distinguished himself both in the senate and in the field; and his exertions in favour of his countrymen, whom he considered as injured and oppressed, have lately attracted much attention. But his recommendation of conciliatory measures did not avail; and Ireland is convulsed with intestine war.

The earl's endeavours, to promote a change of system in Ireland, are not merely vindicated by the 'Son of St. Patrick,' but are highly applauded; and his representations of military oppression are supported against the contradictions of the lord-chancellor *Clare*. But the rigorous and cruel proceedings of the ruling powers are said to be less imputable to the English ministers, than to their Irish advisers. The former

'are hood-winked and misled by a vindictive, imperious, and unrelenting native oligarchy; an oligarchy that has sometimes muttered defiance to the cabinet of England itself.' p. 51.

'As the immortal Chatham once said, that there was something behind the throne greater than the throne itself; so at the present moment it will very probably be found, that there is something in Ireland behind the vice-regal throne, much greater too than even the throne itself. And, until the harpy is removed, there will be no peace for that distracted kingdom!

'One soothing act of glorious clemency; the least disposition towards conciliation; will contribute more to remove the errors of the misled, than ten thousand acts of rigour. As to traitors, let them be sacrificed by law, to the vengeance of their country. But involve not a whole nation in the treason, by an almost general proscription: nor ever permit an Irishman to become a duke of *Alva*.' p. 52.

The writer throws an air of burlesque over his performance, by his affected language. We quote two passages by way of exemplification.

'Until the keen sword is sheathed! Or, at any rate, until it is sweetly wreathed by the olive! Until the brow of rigour is unknit, and the government rests for a moment on its arms! Until the loud voice of authority mingles the soft tenor notes of conciliation, with its harsh double bass of terror; no breath can attune the

*Æolian harp of Hibernia, to any other sounds than those of sorrows, and of sighs.* P. 54.

‘ While the one arm of the empire is under the dreadful infliction of an incessantly military phlebotomy, without any other styptic being applied than its own blood; can it be imagined that its ability to defend the imperial crown, will be as vigorous and overpowering, as when all its muscles are entire, and the whole cuticle is unprobed, and unblemished? By no means. Apply then instantly a conciliatory balsam to the sanguiferous arm, before it mortify, and perhaps drop off; and let the beneficent heir apparent be honoured with the patriot operation!’ P. 79.

The author’s sentiments, however, are unexceptionable; and the examples which he states of the ill effects of coercion and violence are worthy of notice.

*The Question as it stood in March 1798.* 8vo. 6d. Faulder. 1798.

Not only the question, as it stood in the month of March last, but the question which was agitated at the rise of the war, and various points connected with the progress of it, are here discussed.

In June 1792, the question was, whether his Britannic majesty should use his good offices to ‘ put a stop to the progress of a confederacy against France, which threatened the peace, the liberty, and the happiness of Europe.’ This point was decided in the negative by the members of the cabinet, as *all* the parties concerned did not solicit the interference of our court. But (says this writer)

‘ When *all* the parties in a war agree to desire the interposition of a neutral power, no friendly offices are wanted to bring them back to a pacific temper. Peace is almost as good as made, when *all* the contending parties are disposed to desire it. The obvious duty of a common friend, the true policy of a generous, or even of a prudent government, is to employ its good offices, and to exert its influence with those powers, which may be less inclined to views of moderation, to encourage and promote a pacific disposition, and to favour that party, which seems the readiest to listen to reasonable overtures, and to make concessions for the benefit of general accommodation. Such were the wise and honourable duties of England, when his majesty’s mediation was solicited and refused.’ P. 3.

The conduct of the court to M. Chauvelin is censured by our author; and the complaints of that minister are represented as well-founded. The dismissal of M. Maret, and the refusal of a passport to a new plenipotentiary, are afterwards condemned, as they cannot be said to be strong instances of a moderate or a pacific disposition.

With regard to the declaration of war, it is observed that such a denunciation

'is not an act of aggression. It rather supposes an antecedent injury received, and satisfaction demanded and refused. Whether well founded or not, it assumes the character of frankness and magnanimity; by announcing the hostility it intends, and putting the enemy on his defence. If our ground was good, if the war on ~~our~~ side was just at any time, it was so before February 1793, and our declaration should have preceded theirs' [*that of the French*]. 'In the conduct of great affairs, the advantages of cunning are very inconsiderable. By provoking a challenge, or driving your opponent to break the peace, you may possibly have the law on your side in a private quarrel. Between nations this is not policy, but deceit: and a poor deceit too, that deceives nobody. The real aggressor is he, who refuses satisfaction, and forces his adversary to assault him.' P. 9.

After some observations, not altogether new, on the successive negotiations with the French, the question of the danger of the country is loosely stated; and it is said, that it

'is now at the utmost strain of all its remaining resources, not for the purpose of attempting any vigorous operation against a vulnerable enemy, which, if it succeeded, might reduce them to reasonable terms, but, if possible, to defend the two islands against an invasion, which the enemy may continue to hold over us, with very little effort on their part, or' [*without*] 'much inconvenience to their affairs, until the nerves and sinews of England are broken by exertions, unavailing while they last for any purpose of attack, and impossible to be continued. With all the means of success, and weapons of victory in his hands, Mr. Pitt has made the French republic what it is.' P. 23.

'This island, untouched by an enemy, is shaken and wasted by its ungenerous efforts to crush a distracted, falling nation; while France, in the midst of horrible convulsions, extends her basis, and lifts her head above the world. Yet the same councils' [*councils*] 'are continued, and the same courses are pursued. Expectation is maintained against experience, and confidence nourished by disappointment.' P. 24.

This pamphlet is not well written; but it contains some remarks not injudicious, and animadversions not intemperate.

*An Examination of Mr. Wakefield's Reply to the Bishop of Landaff's Address.* By John Ranby, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1798.

John Ranby, esq. informs us, that he belongs to a troop of volunteer cavalry; and he forgets, that, when he enters into the

fields of controversy, there are certain rules for behaviour as essential, perhaps, as the orders which he receives on a field-day. Mr. Wakefield calls in question the minister's sincerity in the negotiations at Lille; and our esquire gives these reasons for not attending to his arguments.

'Because, 1st, the sincerity of our ministry, and the insincerity of the French in the negotiation of Lille, was [were] 'proved, almost to the very silencing of opposition, by Mr. Pitt in his speech on the address of the house of commons upon the event of that negotiation. At least if he failed, I have not vanity enough to engage in an argument which Mr. Pitt could not maintain. 2dly, The issue of that negotiation did not in any degree depend upon the sincerity or insincerity of our ministry; but on a circumstance which could not be affected by either.' P. 27.

We believe that much insolent and overbearing language has been used on the subject of these negotiations; but, if opposition has been silenced, the observers have not been convinced; and the second reason is unsatisfactory, as long as there are grounds for believing that the delay in the negotiation arose from a wish, on our part, to avail ourselves of the distracted state of the French councils. But, whether the minister was sincere or not, certainly suspicion does attach itself to the negotiation; and time will probably present us with documents, from which we may form a decisive opinion. In the mean time, who can justify the following language?

'Mr. Wakefield's minute examination is therefore a mere vehicle of abuse against the ministry, unfounded, scandalous, and *impertinent*; I use the word in its strict sense, for it is perfectly irrelevant to the question proposed, "the trial of the disposition of the French directory to peace." P. 28.

The attorney-general has taken Mr. Wakefield's pamphlet out of our jurisdiction; and to his notice we recommend this cavalier, lest, from the example lately given by high authority, the two authors should be inclined to take up weapons more dangerous than their pens.

*An Address to the People of Great Britain. By George Burges, B. A. 8vo. 1s. Longman. 1798.*

This address exhibits a candid view of the state of public opinions, and displays the progress of knowledge in producing reformation and rendering corruption odious. We have not lately seen any expostulation in favour of unanimity, which we can so safely recommend for the purity of its principles, and the calm and Christian-like appeal made to the understanding, rather than the passions of the people. It is not more certain that we ought to reject the interference of a foreign power, than that it is our duty to favour the cause of reformation by our own exertions. The

following sentiment cannot be too deliberately weighed by those who wish to perpetuate abuses even amidst the evils which they create.

'If public opinion be favourable to the cause of revolution, our fleets and our armies fight against it to no purpose. If the voice of the people demand a renovation of government throughout the world, all military force opposed to that voice will be found as small dust upon the balance.' p. 3.

On the other hand, those who wanton in the idea of *revolution* would do well to remember, that

'the difference between reformation, the deliberate work of time, and revolution, the mad impulse of the moment, is by far too considerable to be treated with disdain.' p. 7.

'Premature revolution has been the prolific source of many, I might say of most, of those horrible excesses which have blotched the fair face of freedom, and disgraced the renovation of government in France; and, if care be not taken, this is the fatal rock upon which England will split too.' p. 9,

*The Progress of Delusion; or, an Address to all Parties: exposing the Influence and Effects of popular Credulity and Indolence, and pointing out the only Means of being preserved from national Ruin.* 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1798.

The first part of this pamphlet is occupied on the popular delusions in manners, literature, and amusements; and the remarks are applicable to both parties: but the chief object is to expose political delusions borrowed from the fashionable notions of liberty, which republican writers have endeavoured to disseminate; and here it may be expected that parties will differ. Many years, we apprehend, must elapse before the reformers and anti-reformers shall have ascertained their respective portions of delusion. In the mean time, our author recommends unanimity as the 'only means of being preserved from national ruin;' and, if such a concurrence should take place, it will be a plain proof that one party has sacrificed its delusions to the public good.

*Pepper and Salt; or, a Letter to the Armed Associates of Great Britain, containing Remarks on the Mischief of Sedition; Progress of Treason; Cowardice of Irish Traitors; Origin of the War; Jacobin Newspapers; Liberty of the Press; French Fraternity; Armed Coalition; Defence of Ourselves; Destruction of the French; and Peace to the World.* 8vo. 1s. Downes. 1798.

This modest and able writer declares, that, 'if certain acquitted felons had been timely hanged as they merited, very many lives had been saved, that have been, and must be forfeited, through the folly of those acquittals;' that Mr. Fox at the Whig Club made

him: 'think of *Saul* and the *witch of Endor*,' &c. &c. The rest is a compound of *traitors, vipers, wretches, scoundrels, villains*, and other ingredients, for which the author must have put all the force of *Billingsgate* in requisition. We do not remember to have before met with such a collection of *unprofitable falsehood*, and nonsense, as we here find to our extreme regret.

.. *Unite or Fall*. 12mo. 6d. Wright. 1798.

This *petite-piece* is ascribed to the pen of the earl of Carlisle. The writer, whoever he may be, deals in generals, and has conceived that broad assertion is the best style for a popular tract of small dimensions. He maintains that, by the confession of France herself, she was the aggressor in the war; that, with all our care, and all our humiliation, we should only have obtained some suspension of our fate, or, as dean Swift expresses it, 'the humble favour of being last devoured;' and that, in both our attempts for the restoration of peace, France evinced, in the clearest manner, her determined resolution to continue the war. The conclusion is, that we must *unite*, or *fall* before this implacable enemy. We shall not examine the validity of the positions above stated; for that, the author says (and we believe him), would be 'unprofitable talk.'

*Substance of an Address to a Parochial Meeting held at Chiswick, in the County of Middlesex, on Tuesday, the 20th Feb. 1798, to consider the Propriety of a Voluntary Contribution for the Defence of the Country. By Sir C. W. Rouse Boughton, Bart. M. P. Chairman of the Meeting. Published at the Request of the Committee and Inhabitants. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1798.*

In this spirited address, the author reviews the proceedings of the French in their internal government and external relations, and urges the necessity of contributing liberally to the defence of our country against the meditated invasion. Few of his positions are untenable; and he has made such a selection of the prominent features of the French conduct in the conquered territories, as must have made a strong impression on the minds of his hearers.

*Democratic Principles illustrated by Example. By Peter Porcupine. Part the First. 12mo. 3d. Wright. 1798.*

The author endeavours to prove the mischiefs of democratic principles, by the influence of which, he says, it appears that there have been 'two millions of persons murdered in France, since it has called itself a republic; among whom are reckoned two hundred and fifty thousand women, two hundred and fifty thousand children (besides those murdered in the womb) and twenty-four thousand Christian priests.' These numbers seem to be exaggerated *euphoric* *causd*; for nothing tickles the ear of a party writer so much as hundreds of thousands and millions; but enough of in-



nocent blood has undoubtedly been shed to show that even emancipation or liberty may be bought at too high a price.

*The Advantages resulting from the French Revolution, and a French Invasion, considered.* 8vo. 1s. Vernon and Hood. 1798.

From the number of pamphlets published with a view of stimulating the people to a defence of their country, it might be supposed that a considerable degree of repugnance had been manifested, which we are very far from thinking to be the case. But, even if so flagrant a spirit should be prevalent, the abilities of the present writer would give very little animation to the national force. He probably rests, however, on the goodness of his intentions, and does not wish to provoke criticism.

### L A W.

*A Collection of Decrees by the Court of Exchequer in Tithes Causes, from the Usurpation to the present Time. Carefully extracted from the Books of Decrees and Orders of the Court of Exchequer (in the Possession of the Court), and arranged in chronological Order. With Tables of the Names of the Cases, and the Consents. By Hutton Wood, one of the six Clerks of the Court of Exchequer. Fol. 1s. Royal 8vo. 15s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.*

The frequent disputes concerning tithes must render a publication like the present desirable to all persons who are interested in that peculiar species of property; and a short extract from the Preface will exhibit the plan on which the work has been executed.

‘The several cases will contain the substance of the plaintiff’s bill and the defendant’s answer, together with the material allegations of those subsequent pleadings which the respective parties thought it necessary to exhibit to the court. To which will be added the judgment of the court, and the reasons occasionally given for such judgment, as pronounced by the barons on the whole case thus brought before them, and entered in the book of decrees and orders by the officers belonging to the court.’

It is observed, that ‘the merit of the work, as far as the author is concerned, will materially depend upon the accuracy with which he has extracted the several cases.’ This is certainly the best criterion of the merit of such a publication. Mr. Wood has properly availed himself of his professional opportunities as ‘one of the six clerks of the court of exchequer,’ and has given a neat specimen of useful compilation.

*Observations, &c. on an Act passed in the present Session of Parliament, intitled an Act for granting to his Majesty an Aid and Contribution for the Prosecution of the War. With the Act subjoined.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Bunney and Co. 1798.

This publication is useful, both for the matter which it contains,

and the shape in which its particulars are conveyed. The act for the new assessment, without any comments, and in the usual unportable form, is sold at the price of *three shillings*—this pamphlet contains the whole act, with pertinent observations, and in a very convenient size, for *three shillings and six pence*. With regard to the substance of the statute, we shall only observe, that we lament the occasion of so serious a demand on the members of the community; but, with reference to the detail, we may justly affirm, that the act is drawn up in a more distinct and intelligible manner than that in which the will of the legislature has hitherto manifested, been communicated to the public.

*The Law of Costs, in Civil and Criminal Proceedings. By John Hullock, Esq. of Gray's Inn, Barrister at Law. With an Appendix, containing the Cases to Hilary Term, 1795, inclusive. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Clarke and Son, 1797.*

Persons who engage in legal contest frequently find that costs form a very important consideration in the case, either of suit or defence: and the number and variety of the decisions on this subject, have occasionally embarrassed the most expert professors of the law. A publication in which these decisions are arranged according to principle, and illustrated by comments, cannot but be acceptable. To the praise of having compiled such a work, Mr. Hullock is fairly entitled: his authorities are judiciously selected, his remarks are pertinent, and his system is perspicuous and intelligible.

*An Assaunt to the Practice of Conveyancing; containing Indexes or References to the several Deeds, Agreements, and other Assurances comprised in the several precedent Books of Authority now in Print. From the Time of Sir Orlando Bridgman to the present Period. With some Remarks on the distinguishing Qualities of each Precedent: and cursory Observations on the peculiar Merit of the Conveyancers by whom they were respectively prepared. By James Barry Bird, of New Inn, Esq. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Clarke and Son, 1797.*

Of Mr. Bird's System of Conveyancing, we did not express a very favourable opinion, conceiving it to be on a scale much inferior to what the importance of the subject demanded: that opinion we are not inclined to retract, but, at the same time, think it our duty to intimate, that the present volume may be usefully consulted as an index to precedents, which are at least calculated to direct the judgment of the practising conveyancer.

B O T A N Y.

*Flora Oxoniensis, exhibens Plantas in Agro Oxoniensi sponte crescentes, secundum Systema Sexuale distributas, auctore Joanne Sibthorp, M. D. Professore Regio Botanico, R. S. L, &c. Socio.*

*The Oxonian Flora, exhibiting the Plants which grow spontaneously in the County of Oxford, arranged according to the Sexual System; by Dr. John Sibthorp, the Royal Professor of Botany. 8vo. 8s. Fletcher and Hanwell, Oxford.*

From the time of Ray, Oxford produced no botanist who particularly attended to its Flora, till Dr. Sibthorp engaged in the task. The plants, indeed, are not of great variety, as it has few elevated spots.

Each genus and species are described by our botanist: the names of Linnæus are chiefly preserved; the synonyms of Ray are added; and the best drawings are noticed. The *Flora Londinensis* of Curtis frequently occurs among the references; and the works of Jacquin, Dillenius, Sowerby, and some others, are also observable. The genera of the leafy mosses; among the cryptogamia, are formed according to the system of Hedwig, from the *Peristoma*; and the numerous species of the agarics are very conveniently arranged. The more rare plants are particularly described; the common ones in more general terms.

Near the close of the Preface, we find a short history of the botanic garden at Oxford, from the time of its institution by lord Danby to the present period. Its great benefactors were Bobart, Morison, Sherard, Dillenius, and (in later times) Dubois and Shaw. At present the garden is, it seems, too small; and we express our hope with that of the author, that this ground of reproach may not be suffered much longer to continue.

*A Botanical Nomenclator; containing a Systematical Arrangement of the Classes, Orders, Genera, and Species of Plants, as described in the new Edition of Linnæus's Systema Naturæ, by Dr. Gmelin, of Gottingen. To which are added, Alphabetical Indexes of the Latin and English Names of the Plants, together with the Names of the Countries of which they are Natives; also the Number of British Species. By William Forfyth, Junior. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.*

This work consists of an enumeration of all the genera and species of plants at present known; and those which have been discovered since the publication of Gmelin's edition of the *System of Nature*, as well as those which from later observations have been referred to different genera, are properly distinguished. Accuracy constitutes the whole merit of such an attempt; and our author's claim to it we find no reason to dispute.

*The Botanist's Calendar, and Pocket Flora: arranged according to the Linæan System. To which are added, References to the best Figures of British Plants, 2 Vols. Small 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. White. 1798.*

The design of this work will be best explained in the writer's language.

This little work is submitted to the public eye with the utmost diffidence. The compiler is aware that the complete botanist may object to the partial notice of the grasses and rushes, and to the total omission of the minute and numerous tribes belonging to the class cryptogamia: but to have included these, would have carried him beyond the limits of a pocket compendium; which he now publishes, with the humble view only of leading the student in botany through the delightful wilds of blooming vegetation, to a systematic knowledge of those indigenous plants which are peculiarly striking, or beautiful: and to assist the investigating fair one, who, with nice and curious hand, crops a flowering rival of its blushing sweets! Vol. i. p. v.

In this performance, the flowers are arranged according to their periods of flowering; and reference is made to the best floral accounts, as well as to the most elegant and correct figures. If the work should reach another edition, we would advise the compiler to give all the grasses and the British plants of the cryptogamia class in another volume. We have examined different parts of the calendar with care; and, though we have detected some inaccuracies, have found few important errors.

#### M E D I C I N E, &c.

*A System of Dissections, explaining the Anatomy of the Human Body, the Manner of displaying the Parts, and their Varieties in Disease. With Plates. By Charles Bell. Folio. 5s. 6d. sewed. Johnson, 1798.*

In learning every science, and particularly in studying anatomy, the beginning appears to be unavoidably difficult. Much labour must be employed in acquiring a knowledge relating to parts of the subject; the use of which information cannot be distinctly perceived till the whole is contemplated together. In anatomy it seems necessary to study, separately, the bones, ligaments, muscles, vessels, nerves, and viscera. When these parts are regarded as composing one whole, each being perfect in its peculiar functions, yet all harmoniously co-operating to one great effect—and when the importance of the knowledge which has been gradually acquired is completely understood—the anatomical student frequently becomes an enthusiast in the pursuit, and does not lament his preparatory labour. On the other hand, a student who, in his initiation, has his views directed to all the parts of the body in their

natural and relative situations, finds his attention engaged by so many particulars, that we think he cannot gain a very accurate knowledge of any. He will soon imagine that he has a sufficient general knowledge of the subject, and will not be disposed to descend to the labour (not unimportant in anatomical pursuits) of learning minutely.

The former is the common, and appears to us to be the best, mode of learning anatomy. Mr. Charles Bell, however, entertains different sentiments. He says,

‘From what I have seen of private dissection, I would rather advise those who are desirous of undertaking a complete course of dissections, not to begin their labours with learning all the muscles of the body; for this, besides other disagreeable circumstances, is a dry and tedious task at first.—It will perhaps be found more truly useful to begin their dissections with general views to the economy of such parts as, from lectures or books, they know to be of importance; then proceeding, in a more determined way, to study rigidly the anatomy of the bones and muscles, and accidents of the great joints, the blood-vessels and nerves, and the anatomy of the great operations of surgery.’ P. xiii.

The author's descriptions are given in conformity to these opinions, and are not, according to our ideas, sufficiently precise; but no exact arrangement can be adopted in dissection; for various parts must be examined as they occur to our observation.

The necessity of dissection is acknowledged by all; and Mr. Bell's book is calculated to assist students in this difficult employment: he observes—

‘That the common books are not suited to be assistants in dissection, every one must allow, who has taken the knife into his own hands, or been attentive to the operations in a dissecting room. He will know, that, in dissection, it is not the want of minute description that is so much felt, as the want of arrangement, and plans upon which to proceed.—How often is it found, that young men, who have begun their anatomical labours with a true conviction of the importance of the subject, and with the most determined resolutions to combat all difficulties which might oppose themselves to their progress, have, for want of a plan and system of proceeding, gone to work in so disorderly a manner, that they have been soon bewildered, and forced, in disgust and despair, to give up a pursuit, which, with their views better directed, would have been most plain, and certainly most valuable to them. The conviction of the want of some guide to the younger students in these labours, has emboldened me to this attempt.’ P. v.

He writes in a lively and impressive manner; and his work will be found an useful guide to the learners of anatomy.

*Observations on Insanity: with practical Remarks on the Disease, and an Account of the morbid Appearances on Dissection. By John Haslam, late of Pembroke-hall, Cambridge, Esq. 8vo. 3s. Boards. Rivingtons. 1798.*

Mr. Haslam has here given an account of the observations which he has made upon insanity during his residence at Bethlehem hospital. He has quoted very few authorities on this subject; for it is his opinion, that, 'if we except the late Dr. John Monro's reply to Dr. Battie's Treatise on Madness, there is no work on the subject of mental alienation, which has been delivered on the authority of extensive observation and practice.'

So decisive an assertion may perhaps offend many persons who have written copiously on insanity; but the author intended that the negative remark should be confined to persons who have directed the treatment of madness in a public hospital, exclusively appropriated to insane persons; and this opinion prompted him to undertake the present work.

He believes mania and melancholy to be produced by the same disease; for he observes that they frequently alternate in the same person, that in dissection no appearances are discovered to be peculiar to either state, and that the treatment found most successful, is in each equally beneficial.

The history which is given of the disease is very short: some symptoms, however, are noticed, which have not been generally attended to.

The author does not find the patients in Bethlehem hospital so obstinately constipated as many have supposed them to be: on the contrary, he has remarked that their bowels are frequently irritable; a circumstance which makes them liable to diarrhoea and dysentery. It also appears, that they are not so unaffected by cold as is in general believed, mortifications of the feet being frequent. In some patients who have suffered a raving paroxysm of long duration, Mr. Haslam found the scalp, especially at the back part of the head, so much relaxed, that it could be gathered up by the hand. Seventy-nine cases, with dissections, are given; in all of them the brain was in a diseased state. The morbid appearances were inflammation of the membranes, a turgid state of the vessels, an accumulation of water either on the surface or within the ventricles, and extravasations of blood. The consistence of the brain is also noted: in some cases it was natural, in some unusually hard or soft; and, in one instance, an apparent elasticity was remarked.

By consulting the records of the hospital, and his own register of cases, Mr. Haslam finds that women are more subject to insanity than men; that, when the disease is consequent upon delivery, the recovery is more probable than when it arises from any other cause; that those who are violent recover in a larger proportion

than those who are depressed; and that the chance of restoration is proportioned to the youth of the patient.

Under the article of 'Management,' many directions are given, and humanity and kindness are particularly recommended. The method of cure which Mr. Haslam has seen employed with benefit, consists of evacuations by cupping and cathartics. Vomiting, he observes, has not succeeded; and camphor, when given in large doses, has produced little advantage; nor have blisters, setons, or issues, been attended with any remarkably good effect. The cold bath having been used in conjunction with other remedies, he is unwilling to give a decided opinion with respect to its utility.

## RELIGION.

*The Danger of Lukewarmness in Religion considered, and applied to the present State of this Country, in a Sermon delivered at the Ollagon Chapel, Bath, on Sunday, April 29, 1798. By J. Gardiner, D. D. Rector of Brailsford, and Vicar of Shirley, in the County of Derby. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1798.*

The preacher accuses the church of England of lukewarmness; and he is very vehement against the persons who are supposed to have sworn to their income upon the late bill of assessment without a strict regard to truth. In another part, he thus speaks:

'To what are ministers of the gospel reduced? As long as we expatiate on the horrors and cruelties practised by our infidel neighbours, we are listened to with pleasure, or at least with patience; but the moment, in discharging our more important duty, we attack the prevailing irregularities and crimes of our Christian countrymen, we are called on to produce our proofs, or we are deemed impertinent and presumptuous. — *O tempora!*' p. 34.

That is, when the preacher is a party man, and abuses his pulpit to political purposes, he is favoured by those whose cause he maintains; but, when he does his duty and enforces the precepts of the gospel, he is heard with satisfaction by those only who consider that Christ's kingdom is not of this world. We need not say how few auditors are of the latter description.

*The Lawfulness of Defensive War upon Christian Principles impartially considered. By a Clergyman of the Church of England, 12mo. 6d. Darton and Harvey. 1798.*

A Christian cannot justify offensive war: very few have any doubts about the propriety of a war for defensive purposes. The writer of this work adduces such arguments as deserve the consideration of every minister of peace, before he consecrates the standards for war. Whatever may be our sentiments on the chief points of this discussion, we approve the observations which follow.

‘For a nation to send its thousands into the field of battle, or into a foreign land to meet those enemies, who otherwise might become the invaders, is committing a real and certain evil, in order to avoid that which is only supposed and uncertain.

‘The dread of being destroyed by our enemies, if we do not go to war with them, is the effect of a guilty conscience, and can never be considered by Christians as any thing but mere folly and delusion; for however speciously it may be glossed over, it is a plain and unequivocal proof of our disbelief in the superintendence of Divine Providence, and that we had rather depend for protection upon man, the child of dust and creature of a day, than on that Supreme Almighty Governor, in whose hands are the issues of life and death.’ P. 15.

We recommend this pamphlet to the clergy of all descriptions, with the advice from Bacon, which the author has taken for his motto.

‘Read not to contradict or confute, nor to believe and take for granted, nor to find matter for discourse; but to weigh and consider.’

*A Sermon on the Sanctification of the Sabbath, and on the right Use and the Abuse of Sunday-schools: preached Oct. 1st, 1797. By the Rev. M. Olerenshaw, Minister of Mallow, Derbyshire. 8vo. 6d. Clarke. 1797.*

We here find some strong exhortations to an observance of the sabbath of the Jews, but no cogent arguments to show that the precept is obligatory on Christians. To employ any part of the Sunday in work, or in a journey, is represented as a profanation; and the preacher, in conformity with his notion of a sabbath, makes a just distinction between the employments now customary in Sunday schools. Writing and arithmetic are frequently taught in these schools; but he, with great propriety, would confine the scholars to religious instruction.

*Sermon prêché à la Chapelle Helvétique, le Mercredi, 11 Avril, 1798, Jour Anniversaire de la Société des Suisses et des Genevois, (établie à Londres depuis l'An 1703,) et publié à la Requisition et au Profit de la dite Société. Par Louis Amédée Aspach, Ministre du St. Evangile. 8vo. 1s. De la Grange. 1798.*

*A Sermon preached at the Helvetic Chapel, on the Anniversary of the Institution of the Society of Swiss and Genevese.*

This is a very pathetic address in favour of a beneficial institution. The apostrophe to William Tell, and the recollection of youthful days spent at Geneva, are forcibly given; but the whole is in a style calculated rather to affect from the pulpit, than please in the closet.



*A Charge delivered to the Clergy of the Archdeaconry of Northumberland, in April, 1798, and published at their Request. By Robert Thorpe, D. D. Archdeacon of Northumberland.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1798.

The old story! the progress of infidelity! Yet some good sentiments are interspersed, one of which we could wish the archdeacon to recommend to the prosecutors of the poor vendors of *King's* attack on Christianity.

'I can never entertain the least apprehension that true Christianity can in the end suffer by freedom of inquiry, however uncontrolled or extravagant.' P. 6.

Appendant to the charge is the second edition of a commencement sermon preached at Cambridge, in 1792, on establishments in religion; in which are discussed the usual arguments in favour of an alliance between church and state. The interval which has elapsed since the first edition, might have established more just notions in the writer, than those which appear in the following extract.

'The principal advantage, derived to religion, arises from that necessary provision, made by the state, for public instruction; and the regular celebration of Christian worship; without which, it is justly apprehended, mankind would soon fall into a total ignorance and neglect of all religion.' P. 27.

If mankind came to the knowledge and practice of true religion, when all the establishments favoured a false religion, is there any reason to suppose, that the truth, which thus made its way against all the splendour of paganism, would fail, if deprived of the slender support which it obtains from temporal emoluments?

*A philosophic Discourse on Providence: addressed to the Modern Philosophers of Great Britain. By the Rev. Mr. Archard, Author of the Essay on the French Nobility, &c.* 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1798.

'Such is the meek and resigned spirit of Christianity; and such, I will add, is the genuine spirit of stoicism. With regard to moral sublimity, the two systems are nearly co-ordinate. But the Christian has a superiour claim to our approbation, on account of its superiour sanctions. On this ground rests its superiority over all human systems; and on this ground, morally and politically speaking, it recommends itself to you, my friends, who should all, for the sake of peace, for the sake of social harmony, in detestation of anarchy, and in imitation of the great examples of antiquity, constantly assert, at all times and in all places—*a patribus acceptos Deos placet coli.*" P. 33.

Whatever may have been the spirit of stoicism, we can affirm that the Latin words in this extract are repugnant to the Christian spirit. Christianity is not pleased with the worship of gods, though

the practice may have been sanctioned by numerous generations. On the contrary, all its efforts are directed to an establishment of the worship of the one true God, by the best motives that can actuate a reasonable being; and it cannot admit the maxim of the ancients, 'to think with the wise and act with the vulgar.' We do not see one reason for calling this a philosophic discourse; for the great discussion of the nature of Providence from philosophical principles, and the reconciliation of a moral providence with the freedom of man, make a very small part of the performance.

## P O E T R Y.

*An Elegy on the Death of the Right Hon. Edmund Burke. By Mrs. West, Author of the Gipsy's Story. 8vo. 1797.*

The muse of Mrs. West exhibits some fire and much show—a profusion of imagery, with a small portion of genuine poetry. The rock on which this lady spins has been fatal to many adventurers—we mean *tombs*. Unfortunately for the rhiming tribe, enthusiasm runs away with judgment; and poor common sense, who should be a constant guest, is rarely invited to the entertainment.

In the fancied spirit of poetry, Mrs. West thus begins a strain of rampant adulation.

What mighty spirit, in the dark abode  
Of earth long prison'd, gains its wish'd release?  
Who journeys now along the starry road  
To claim the birth-right of eternal peace?  
No vulgar grief these decent rites bespeak,  
No pageant-voc attends this solemn bier;  
Unfeign'd affection bathes each mourner's cheek,  
And love and reverence consecrate the tear.  
To grace thine obsequies, lamented shade!  
Aerial forms from sapphire clouds emerge,  
Cherubic hands the cypress garlands braid,  
And harps of seraphs hymn thy funeral dirge.  
Genius, with folded arms, and wings depress'd,  
Deplores the mind that caught his brightest flame;  
And British freedom rends her matron's vest,  
Mourning the champion of her injur'd name.  
Behold his purple robe, and soaring plume,  
Sad Chivalry attends with scutcheon torn;  
He plants with deathless palms the shallow tomb,  
To shield thy dust from Vandals, yet unborn.  
Thine are these obsequies, O Burke!—to thee  
Rites so appropriate can alone belong;  
O long-perturbed spirit! art thou free  
From scenes of faction, violence, and wrong? P. 1.

If any one of our readers should wish to see how far mistaken sublimity may be carried, he may peruse the following stanza.

‘ For states ephemeral, in every clime  
Start into birth, and shed a meteor glare ;  
While spacious empires, eldest born of time,  
Hurl’d from their orbits, are dissolv’d in air.’ P. 4.

Our fair author, however, can sometimes be moderate and poetical ; for example—

‘ Now o’er the Mantuan’s laurell’d tomb no more  
Shall Taste reclin’d her classic dreams prolong ;  
The Tuscan maid, who weeps on Anio’s shore,  
Chants not the hallow’d notes of Tasso’s song.’ P. 7.

We could quote other stanzas that are not deficient in simplicity or poetry.

The subject of the lady’s elegiac song certainly possessed abilities ; but they were not of such splendour as to out-shine and overwhelm every other object. The powers of Mr. Burke have been over-rated : he was neither a Tully nor a Quintilian ; and yet he has been, by the folly of flatterers, called their equal. His *patriotism*, which so sublimely raised its head, has already found its level.

Although poetry deals largely in fiction, we think it should not be totally destitute of truth : ‘ *est modus in rebus* ;’ we therefore hope that Mrs. West, whenever she may resume the pen of encomium, will not forget to pay some tribute to justice.

*Robin Hood : a Collection of all the ancient Poems, Songs, and Ballads, now extant, relative to that celebrated English Outlaw : to which are prefixed Historical Anecdotes of his Life. 2 Vols. 8vo. 12s. Boards. Egerton.*

Some readers may think that industry has been unprofitably exercised in collecting these old songs ; but there are others who, connecting many pleasant associations with the name of Robin Hood, will see with pleasure a complete publication of the metrical pieces relative to the merry outlaw of Sherwood :

‘ a man who’ (the editor says) ‘ in a barbarous age, and under a complicated tyranny, displayed a spirit of freedom and independence, which has endeared him to the common people, whose cause he maintained, (for all opposition to tyranny is the cause of the people,) and, in spite of the malicious endeavours of pitiful monks, by whom history was consecrated to the crimes and follies of titled ruffians and fainted idiots, to suppress all record of his patriotic exertions and virtuous acts, will render his name immortal.

“ Dum juga montis aper, fluvios dum piscis amabit,  
Dumque thymo pascentur apes, dum rore cicadæ,  
Semper honos, nomenque tuum, laudesque manebunt.”

Vol. i. P. xi.

His character is here estimated too highly. He certainly possessed a spirit of freedom and independence; but, however we may be inclined to excuse the manner in which that spirit was displayed; it was not without a smile that we saw it denominated *patriotism*.

"Who," exclaims Dr. Fuller, "made him a judge? or gave him a commission to take where it might be best spared, and give where it was most wanted?" That same power, one may answer, which authorises kings to take where it can be worst spared, and give it where it is least wanted. Our hero, in this respect, was a knight-errant; and wanted no other commission than that of justice, whose cause he militated. His power, compared with that of the king of England, was, by no means, either equally usurped, or equally abused; the one reigned over subjects (or slaves) as a master (or tyrant), the other possessed no authority but what was delegated to him by the free suffrage of his adherents, for their general good: and, as for the rest, it would be absurd to blame in Robin what we should praise in Richard. The latter, too, warred in remote parts of the world against nations from which neither he nor his subjects had sustained any injury; the former at home against those to whose wealth, avarice, or ambition, he might fairly attribute not only his own misfortunes, but the misery of the oppressed and enslaved society he had quitted. In a word, every man who has the power has also the authority to pursue the ends of justice; to regulate the gifts of fortune, by transferring the superfluities of the rich to the necessities of the poor; by relieving the oppressed; and even, when necessary, destroying the oppressor. These are the objects of the social union; and every individual may, and to the utmost of his power should, endeavour to promote them. Had our Robin Hood been, like M'Donald of Barrisdale, a reader of Virgil, he, as well as that gallant chief, might have inscribed on his baldric,

"Hæ tibi erunt artes; pacis componere mores,  
Parcere subjectis, et debellare superbos." Vol. i. p. xl.

The poems are not proper subjects for criticism. They are neatly printed, and accompanied with wooden cuts. We are glad to observe that the work has little of that coarseness and asperity, which disgrace some of the publications of this editor.

*The poetical Works of Mr. William Collins. With a preface, Essay, by Mrs. Barbauld. Small 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.*

In Mrs. Barbauld's essay we discover the same taste which characterises all her productions. She divides poetry into two classes: one comprehends subjects which are interesting in themselves—moral essays, descriptions of natural objects, narration, &c.—the other she calls 'pure poetry, or poetry in the abstract,' a species 'necessarily obscure to a certain degree,' and therefore not calculated to be popular or greatly useful.

'An epic poem may be compared to a piece of massy plate finely wrought; it is intrinsically valuable, though its value is much increased by the work bestowed upon it. An ode, like a delicate piece of silver filigree, receives in a manner all its value from the art and curiosity of the workmanship. Hence lyric poetry will very seldom bear translation, which is a kind of mending worse of a poem, and reducing it to the sterling value of the matter contained in it.' P. v.

A sketch of the life of Collins is given, with a series of criticisms on his pieces. The volume is elegantly printed; but we cannot consider the plates as really ornamental.

*Satires, &c. by Jaques.*

*Whilst kings, and queens, and knaves, are in the pack,*

*Shall I for subjects, think ye, ever lack?*

*Part the First.*

*Theatric monarchs—first on you I call:*

*Hold up your hands: guilty or not—of all?*

4to. 2s. 6d. Miller. 1798.

If this title-page be not a sufficient specimen of the author's abilities, an extract from his prefatory address to the Reviewers will surely satisfy our readers.

'Sage men of wit, how shall I dare implore

Your aid, whilst pushing from my native shore

Opposing criticism's power?

Say, shall I write in praise of you, unknown?

If that will please you all—the day's my own;

For I will praise you ev'ry hour.

Or if you're poor, as some pert author says,

And for a mutton-bone will sell your lays,

I beg you'll come to me and dine:

For, though not rich, I've enough in plenty,

Ev'n if you muster in number twenty;

Then let me 'mong you sometimes shine.

## D R A M A.

*Natalia and Menzikof: or, the Conspiracy against Peter the Great.*

*A Tragedy, in five Acts. From the German of Kratzer. 8vo.*

4s. Allen. 1798.

Menzikof, on the eve of his marriage with Natalia, is induced by the artful falsehoods of her father to engage in a conspiracy against the czar; Natalia, also, while she thinks she is signing the nuptial contract, adds her name to the list of traitors. But Menzikof is seized with a timely horror for his treachery, and prevents the assassination of Peter. On the trial of the conspirators, the czar appears to plead for Menzikof, who has always been his con-

fidential friend, and whose momentary delusion he pardons. Natalia, however, is condemned: and Menzikof himself, believing her to have been the chief agent in deceiving him, signs the warrant for her death. Her father, at the moment of his execution, declares her innocence; and she is rescued by the people. Natalia and Menzikof are thus restored to each other, and to the friendship of the czar. Such is the plot of this tragedy: the execution is tame and feeble.

*The Maid of Marienburg, a Drama, in five Acts. From the German of Kratter. 8vo. 4s. Allen. 1798.*

Gluck, the pastor of Marienburg, seeks Chatinka his daughter, who has been carried off by Russian soldiers. Chatinka, in the mean time, dwells with Natalia and Menzikof; and, while she is in their house, she wins the confidence, and, unknowingly, the affections of the czar. Her father discovers her, and urges her to depart with him. They embark; but the vessel is driven back by a storm. She sees Peter; she obtains his permission for her departure; and this scene ensues.

‘ *Emperor.* Great souls are ever alike, however distant their conditions.

‘ *Chatinka.* Then will my sovereign permit me to offer one petition—that I in this instant presume greatly on.

‘ *Emp.* All, all, Chatinka,

‘ *Chat.* Then I will truly require much of him!—and the emperor will assure me of its being granted by a squeeze of the hand—

‘ *Emp.* Chatinka!

‘ *Chat.* —Never to sacrifice the repose or happiness of any creature again to his passions!

‘ *Emp. (passionately.)* Chatinka!—how?—thy happiness—the repose of thy soul—is it then become the victim of my passions?—thou sighest?—thou turnest from me?—a tear starting in thine eye?—an agitated soul speaking through thy countenance?—oh Chatinka!

‘ *Chat.* My God! my God!

‘ *Emp.* Yes, yes, thou surely lovest me!

‘ *Chat.* Oh that these eyes had never beheld the emperor.

‘ *Emp. (seizing her hand, and pressing it to his bosom, then crying passionately.)* Oh Chatinka!

‘ *Chat.* My God!—what have I done!

‘ *Emp.* Now ’tis decided!

‘ *Chat.* What a confession has the excess of my anguish wrung from me!

‘ *Emp.* That was the height of my wishes, this single word from thy mouth!

‘ *Chat. (resuming her courage.)* I feel as if my soul was delivered of an oppressive burden—and have now recovered strength

to abide firm to my resolution. (*Kissing his hand.*) Farewell, my gracious lord!—farewel for ever!

• *Emp.* Chatinka!

• *Chat.* In my solitary hours—it shall be my pride, my bliss, my consolation, to remember myself of your friendship; then will I implore heaven, with a desire, with a fervour, such as no woman ever prayed with before, that it will support, bless and accompany all your exalted resolutions;—that it will ever inspire you with acts of humanity, such as are worthy your greatness of mind! (*The post horn is heard.*) This is a most benevolent horn—I obey its summons!—farewel for ever!—my gracious lord!—

• *Emp.* (*sincere and resolved.*) No, Chatinka, I cannot let thee go!

• *Chat.* (*apprehensive.*) Oh my father!

• *Emp.* To separate myself from thee—would be as difficult and painful—as to part from myself.—Thou stayest!

• *Chat.* My father! my mother!—stand by me! deliver me! away—let us away!

• *Emp.* Not so Chatinka! my resolution is taken, thy soul rises sublimely above every trial.—Happy is the prince who has discovered a woman's mind that loves not the prince in the man—but who loves the man in the prince!—I have found this mind—once more I declare my resolution is taken; Chatinka—I take thee for my wife—I make thee, the partner of my crown—and with it the dominion over Russia's extensive states.

• (*A pause, Chatinka transported beyond her senses, the strongest expressions of surprise and joy painted on her countenance—the emotions of which surpass all descriptions, she sinks at his feet.*)

• *Gluck.* (*falling in his son's arms.*) Oh my son, support me or I shall sink into the earth!

• *Edward.* My God! my sister!—the empress of Russia!

• *Emp.* Not at my feet, but to my heart thou jewel of my soul! (*Lifting her up, and pressing her to his heart.*) Oh my wife!—my Chatinka!

• *Natalia.* (*approaching her respectfully.*) Most gracious lady!

• *Chatinka.* (*disengages herself from the emperor's arms, and falls into those of Natalia.*) My friend! my mother! P. 204.

In this piece there is no great merit. The scene which we have extracted is the best.

## N O V E L S.

*The Mysterious Wife.* A Novel. By Gabrielli. 4 Vols. 12mo. 12s. sewed. Lane. 1797.

The hero of this novel, Henry Westhorpe, meets a lady at the Spa, of whom he becomes enamoured, although he can procure no information respecting her. While he is almost despairing on this account, she sends him a letter informing him that he has won

her heart, and that he may receive her hand on particular conditions. He is to remain with her a fortnight; they are then to separate; he is not to divulge his marriage or the name by which she was married, or desire to follow or see her, without her permission; and she is to gratify him with supplies of money. By the advice of a friend, he accepts this offer; and, after the marriage and limited cohabitation, they separate. The uneasiness and dangers occasioned by his passing as a bachelor, and his fruitless attempts to obtain a sight of his wife, form the incidents of the remaining volumes. If the reader should not be disgusted at this original absurdity, he will not be displeased to follow Henry through all his adventures. They are written in a very entertaining manner; and although there are symptoms of a desire of prolonging the anxieties of the husband, merely to eke out four volumes yet we question whether many of the ordinary readers of novels will complain of the length. The portrait of sir William Cleveland is not ill drawn. It is more natural than the characters of captain Grey and some other intruders upon the main story.

*Eloise de Montblanc. A Novel. 4 Vols. 12mo. 12s. sewed.*  
Lane.

This novel is said to be the production of a 'female pen of seventeen.' Much cannot be expected from such an age, especially as 'the hand of correction' was not applied: but, as a first attempt, the work is not contemptible, and there are individual passages not unworthy of the veteran labourers in this fertile vineyard. We wish, however, that the lady had not thought it necessary to write *four* volumes. There is no *lævi* in favour of that number; and the business of this novel might have been dispatched in two volumes with more advantage to the author, and less weariness on the part of her readers. Let her avoid introducing the pert chit-chat of balls and tea-rooms, which *here* is as dull as in real life; and there is a possibility that she may produce a well-connected story which may deserve considerable approbation.

*The History of my Father; or how it happened that I was born. A Romance. In Twelve Chapters. Translated from the German of Kotzebue. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Treppass. 1798.*

As this is a translation of a German work which we reviewed in its French dress in the Appendix to the nineteenth volume of our new arrangement, it will be sufficient to give a specimen of the style of the translator, who has, upon the whole, executed his task with fidelity.

'My father during this time penetrated through the thickest part of the forest, and trembled at each rustling of the dry leaves, fearful that it was still the whip that followed behind him; — but at last when he began to think himself in perfect safety, he began to contemplate very seriously on his own extraordinary fate. "I was born



on a burning mountain, (said he to himself,) consequently I was destined to great deeds. I have an illustrious prince for my god-father, in whose service I was to have had the inexpressible happiness of being an ensign; instead of which a cursed cock-chaffer led me into a den of robbers, where I was condemned to the disgraceful office of scullion. No sooner did I escape from this insult, than I was forced to become an ostrich keeper; where my mind, through its own strength, no sooner raised itself above these various humiliations, and through my diligence in the study of natural history, I, in the innocence of my heart, fed an ostrich with a door key, and a few pebbles; but I must be rewarded, for my assiduity in the pursuit after knowledge, with a horsewhip.' P. 103.

*Hermprong, or, Man as he is not. A Novel. By the Author of Man as he is. 3 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Boards. Lane.*

This novel must be distinguished from the common sort. The author displays an intimate acquaintance with human nature, and delineates it with the pen of a master. His characters are drawn with just discrimination, and placed in situations where their actions strictly correspond with the original sketch. There is occasionally a little tincture of the new philosophy, as it is called, and a shade of gloom is thrown upon human life; but the writer is not unsuccessful in his humorous attempts; and, upon the whole, the reader has a chance of becoming wiser and better by a perusal of this work, if his taste has not been vitiated by the trifling productions of the age.

*Geraldina, a Novel, founded on a recent Event. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.*

We are sorry that any person could be so destitute of delicacy, as to make the event to which the title alludes the subject of a novel. There must have been an equal want of genius; or the author would not have produced a piece which has so little merit.

*Laura, or the Orphan. A Novel. By Mrs. Burton. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. sewed. Richardson. 1797.*

A rapid succession of improbabilities.

#### MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

*A Descriptive Catalogue of the Works of Rembrandt, and of his Scholars, Bol, Livens, and Van Vliet, compiled from the original Etchings, and from the Catalogues of De Burgy, Gersaint, Helle and Glomy, Marcus, and Yver. By Daniel Daulby. 4to. 15s. Boards. Edwards.*

A mere catalogue of an artist's works can afford little amusement; the observations, however, which precede the Catalogue,

are written in a lively and intelligent spirit of criticism. The following extract from these remarks may not be displeasing, either to the professional painter or the amateur.

‘ The genius of Rembrandt as an historical painter, will be more accurately determined by comparing it with that of a great Italian master, whom he resembled in many striking particulars. The same grandeur of composition, the same powerful effect of light and shadow, the same freshness of tints which distinguishes the works of Titian, and which the hand of time rather improves than impairs, characterize also the productions of Rembrandt. Minute criticism might perhaps point out some distinctions between them. The pencil of Rembrandt had more spirit, that of Titian more softness. The works of the former require to be seen at a certain distance, those of the latter please from whatever point they are viewed; yet upon the whole the Dutchman need not shrink from a comparison with the Venetian. But when the productions of these artists are estimated by the standard of just criticism, what an astonishing disparity is perceived between them! The human form, under the plastic hands of Titian, bears the character of a superior race. The muscular strength of manly age, the just proportions, and delicious glow of female beauty, and the interesting attitudes, and rosy plumpness of infancy, excite approbation which will be as unchangeable as the principles on which it is founded. But surely some malicious sprite broke in upon the dreams of Rembrandt, and presented to his imagination, as the model of beauty, the perverse caricature of humanity, which, differently modified, appears in all his works. On this, the favorite object of his idolatry, he lavished all the graces of his exquisite pencil, and, insatuated by her allurements, suffered himself to be seduced from that simplicity of unadulterated nature, which is reflected to so much advantage in the mirror of art.

‘ It has been remarked, that had Rembrandt studied in Italy, his drawing would have been more correct, from having the most perfect models constantly before his eyes. The observation is trite; this would have undoubtedly been the case, but in all probability there would only have been an exchange of qualities. Rembrandt shone in defiance of drawing, taste, and grace, and it is not unlikely, that if his principal attention had been directed to purity of outline, we should never have heard of his name, except perhaps to an edition of the antique statues.

‘ Let us however do justice to the talents of Rembrandt, and own that there are departments in which he appears to much greater advantage, than as an historical painter. Debarred by a vitiated taste from arriving at the first degree of eminence in works of imagination, he knew how to attain it when the actual model of his imitation was before his eyes, and he had only to transfer to the canvass the effect which he so well knew how to produce. Hence

his portraits are deservedly held in the highest esteem, and in grandeur of character, as well as in picturesque effect, often rival the most celebrated works of Titian. The accuracy of his pencil insured a striking resemblance, whilst his skill in the management of light and shadow, and his thorough acquaintance with the harmony and effect of his tints, enabled him to give to his subjects an appearance of reality so striking, as in some instances to have actually imposed on the senses of the spectators. Thus, a picture of his maid-servant placed at the window of his house in Amsterdam, where he fixed his permanent residence about the year 1630, is said to have deceived the passengers for several days. This fact is at least authenticated by De Piles, who had the curiosity when he was in Holland, to inquire after this picture, and finding it was well pencilled, and possessed a great force, purchased it, and esteemed it as one of the highest ornaments of his cabinet.

‘ From this slight inquiry into the merits of Rembrandt as a painter, it will sufficiently appear what rank he is intitled to hold among the eminent professors of the art. Excluded by the effects of a perverted and irremediable taste, from all pretensions to the first honours of his profession, he may be regarded as the most successful of those artists who have exercised great talents upon false principles, and who may not improperly be called the empirics of the art. P. x.

From this quotation, the public will conclude that Mr. Dauby has some knowledge of the art, and that he expresses his ideas with precision and perspicuity. As he professes to be in retirement, we recommend to him a continuance of the pursuit which does him so much credit; and he may perhaps atone by his labours for the defects of those who write ‘about it and about it,’ without throwing a single illuminating ray on the subject.

In the engraving prefixed to the volume, the head seems to be in Rembrandt’s style; but, as for the shapeless mass of drapery, it so little resembles his manner, that we cannot suppose it to be genuine: it is more probably the fabrication of some awkward artist, who, finding the head only, was pleased to supply the drapery from the wardrobe of his own heavy imagination.

*Sketches and Observations, made on a Tour through various Parts of Europe, in the Years 1792, 1793, and 1794. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Johnson. 1797.*

On perusing the work before us, we were inclined to think that the author was an epicure rather than a philosopher, or sentimental journalist. His object is more frequently to inform the traveller where he may get a good dinner, and at a cheap rate, than where he may find any of the curiosities of art, or where he is to stop and view the beauties of nature.

To the *bon-vivant* this work may prove an acceptable acquisition; but those who read books of travels for more valuable information, will find little entertainment, instruction, or benefit.

*The pretended Tomb of Homer : drawn by Dominic Fiarillo, from a Sketch of M. le Chevalier. With Illustrations and Notes, by C. G. Heyne. 4to. 4s. Cadell and Davies.*

The monument that gave rise to this publication, was discovered (during that war between the Turks and Russians which ended in 1774) by the count Pash of Krinen, in the island of Nios, anciently Ios; and, under the denomination of the tomb of HOMER, it was transferred thence into Russia.

As the engravings are necessary for understanding the description of this monument, we must refer the reader to the tract itself, and shall only introduce Mr. Heyne's conclusion.

' M. le Chevalier assures us, that the workmanship of the sarcophagus is not every where equal; the principal side has more relievo than the rest, though it is not quite in so fine a stile; it is much more in the taste of the Roman sarcophagi. To explain this extraordinary fact, we may suppose that some Roman who lived in that island had employed different hands to execute this sarcophagus; or perhaps finding a Greek work in an imperfect state, he finished it.

' M. le Chevalier mentions no inscription on the sarcophagus; so that, in that particular, we are very far from the tomb of Homer. The sarcophagus may have contained the ashes of some great personage, very likely antecedent to the time of the Romans. But let this be as it will, long since has that handful of ashes been dispersed!—*Pulvis et umbra sumus!*' p. 20.

*The Lounger's Common-place Book, or, Miscellaneous Anecdotes. A Biographic, Political, Literary and Satirical Compilation: which he who runs may read. Vol. III. 8vo. 5s. 6d. Boards. Kerby. 1798.*

We have lounged with our author on a sofa, or in a carriage, as often as he has condescended to visit us, and have found him a very entertaining companion. We regret that the intervals of his calls are so long. The present volume has more originality than those which preceded; displaying also, in our opinion, more acuteness and spirit. We cannot give an adequate idea of this work by a single extract; yet the manner may be seen in a short specimen.

' Such were the avowed claims, and such the reputed merits of Mr. Harrison's time-piece; but impelled by duty, vanity, or inclination, he could not be content without attempting to display his literary qualifications. Deaf to the intreaties of friendship and affection, and apparently stimulated by a jealous fear that others might, or would assume the merit of his ingenuity, he published his book on the mensuration of time; a work, which, at once technically obscure, grammatically erroneous, and elaborately unintelligible, exposed its author, otherwise a very respectable character, to ridicule and reprehension.

‘ Many admired, but none could read the book ; his family sighed, and his patrons blushed ; they saw, with concern, that Mr. Harrison, with all his undoubted merits, was incapable of committing his ideas to paper, that he was not able to explain his own inventions ; the critics attempted a translation, but finding the task attended with considerable difficulty, some of them, in a jocose or an irritated moment, accused him of wilfully, and from selfish motives, wrapping up in mystery and darkness, important communications, which he felt the public had a right to expect, as a small return for the splendid reward he had received.

‘ From what I personally knew of him, and have heard from good authority, I cannot but acquit from so heavy a charge, a man, whose general conduct was not tainted by pecuniary obliquity, and whose principal errors originated from constitutional irritability, an attachment to his own opinion, and a harmless overvaluing of his labours, the natural, and not uncommon effect of having succeeded in pursuits, where such numbers have failed.

‘ The national compensation he received was twenty thousand pounds ; whether the benefits produced by the perfection of his time-keepers, were adequate to such a reward, I am not qualified to determine ; yet, so elevated were his expectations, so well founded his claims, or so teasing the official forms required, to ascertain the justice of his pretensions, Mr. Harrison and the board appointed to decide on his merits, parted with mutual dissatisfaction and distrust.

‘ After listening to one of his long and tedious harangues, full of complaints and invective against a certain royal favorite, the clergy, and the two universities, whose professors he could never forgive, for differing from him in opinion ; one of his friends and patrons, and a member of the church of England, offended at his ill humor, which was often inconsistent, and always ill-timed, suddenly quitted the room, with the following short reply :

“ I have ever been ready, as you well know, to do justice to the superiority of your skill, and the correctness of your inventions, but permit me to say, you have little reason to make parsons so perpetually the burthen of your song, and I can never be prevailed on to think a man very ill used, who has received, at different times, twenty thousand pounds of the public money.”

‘ I am informed by a friend, engaged in similar pursuits, that the time-pieces of Harrison were carried to the highest pitch of mechanic dexterity, that his escapements were incomparable ; but from the intentional or accidental obscurity of his explanatory communications, he adds, that general science, and practical utility, have been very little, if at all meliorated by this singular instance of private ingenuity and public munificence.

‘ The following observations on the same subject, were made by a gentleman, eminently qualified to decide on such points, and although a man of science, and on one occasion, a rival of the

subject of our present article, remarkable for candor and sound judgment.

"By a series of observations made, from May, 1766, to April, 1767, with all possible attention to accuracy, fairness, and collateral evidence, (one of whom I believe was captain Baillie, the subject of an article in a former volume) it appears that Mr. Harrison's time-piece gained 20 seconds per day; that in a West India voyage of six weeks, it cannot be depended on to keep the longitude within a degree; and that even with that allowance, it must be kept in a place where the thermometer is always some degrees above freezing; I nevertheless am free to acknowledge that his watch is a useful and valuable auxiliary, and *assisted by observations on the distance of the moon from the sun and fixed stars*, (a man may venture to write the words in Italics, now Harrison is dead, for during his life, they always exasperated him) they may be of considerable use to navigation." P. 85.

This is not one of the most entertaining articles; but it is interesting, and fills up a small chasm in the history of the time-piece: it contributes also to finish the portrait of Harrison.

*An Abridgment of Mr. Byrom's universal English Short-hand; or, the Way of writing English in the most easy, concise, regular, and beautiful Manner. Designed for the Use of Schools. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Lowndes.*

This abridgement will enable a learner, with very little assistance, to make himself master of short hand, as taught by Mr. Byrom: but the abridger would do well to consider, whether Mr. Gurney's mode does not possess some advantages over this; and for those who intend to employ their talents at the bar, it is of some consequence to adopt early the improvements suggested by great practice. The plan of learning to write for a considerable time without abbreviations, we recommend to all the lovers of short hand. The specimens in this work are well executed.

## ANSWERS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

WE have received Mr. Maton's remonstrance. We answer, that, if we had only perceived a *few* inaccuracies or omissions, we should have slightly noticed or passed them over. We are sorry to add that they are by no means few.

The Bovey coal lies in clay, forming strata of different thickness, which *retract* on the surface in parallelograms. The strata are flat, inclined in an angle of about forty-five degrees, terminating in straight lines; and the successive strata, with clay between, thicker generally than the beds of coal, are continued near seventy feet; probably lower. This coal cannot have been wood, or it must have been a succession of woods, which at the word of command have taken the position of such as had before fallen. We recommended the author to the neighbouring cottages; for, on trial, he would have found no particle of alkaline salt among the ashes. Charcoal, it may be said, furnishes no alkali; but charcoal has been subjected to the action of fire, no traces

of which occur in this wood, or the country around. We have not been able to procure Fabroni, quoted by Mr. Maton, but perceive that he has quoted no more than is to be found in the second volume of Mr. Kirwan's *Mineralogy*. From this we think the anthracite of that author different from the Bovey coal, or Mr. Kirwan's conclusion too precipitate; but to this subject we shall return in our review of that work. We have examined also the paper of Mr. Hatchett, (in the fourth volume of the *Linnæan Transactions*), who is said by Mr. Maton to 'pronounce, without hesitation, the Bovey coal to be a bituminous wood.'—Within two lines, he professes himself 'unable to offer any opinion on the subject;' and observes, that 'the characters of bitumen are but little apparent in the Bovey coal' (l. c. p. 139). Such disingenuity is not strictly justifiable.

With respect to the glaze on the earthen ware, we can only inform Mr. Maton that, near twenty years since, we made experiments on all the potteries of Devonshire, by suffering vinegar to stand on them three days, in a warm summer, and that we found neither specimens communicate the smallest particle of metallic impregnation. After these experiments, neither his evasion, nor all the authority of all the encyclopedists in Europe, will be of any avail.

The assertions, that women guide the plough, and that even *some* (as he wishes to amend the paragraph) of the lands about Star-cross were covered with furze a few years since, are equally erroneous. Our information came from a better source than his 'humble informer,' who was either ignorant or disingenuous. On the whole, we would not advise him to print a second edition, before he shall have made another visit to the west, under an intelligent guide.

A 'Suffolk Freeholder' wishes to know whether, in our account of his late pamphlet (see the 97th page of this volume), we 'mean to insinuate that the author writes for any party, or to assert that he has any patrons.' The remark to which he alludes was general rather than particular; and we cannot pretend to know whether he is a *mercenary* writer, or merely favours the public with the *spontaneous* effusions of political partiality, and the *voluntary* dictates of obvious prejudice. In either case, he is a *party writer*.—He accuses us of having garbled an extract from his pamphlet, and desires that we will plead guilty to the charge. Reasonable concessions we shall always be disposed to make, at the request of any writer who may think himself aggrieved. We therefore admit, that the reviewer of the 'Thoughts on Mr. Fox's Secession' did not quote with strict fidelity a particular passage from that performance, and, from *three* sentences, formed *one*, not however different in the spirit, but merely in point of occasional expression. The pamphlet being mislaid, the editor forbore to alter a syllable of what he supposed to be an exact quotation; and, when he afterwards referred to the 'Thoughts,' on receiving the letter of the 'Freeholder,' he found that the *garbling* which principally affected this gentleman, was the insertion of a connecting word which his introduction of the *article* rendered *essential* (as every grammarian will inform him) to the strictness of philological purity. The expression was before inelegant; and the reviewer left it equally so, but at the same time corrected the solecism. This, therefore, is a most extraordinary ground of complaint; and, when combined with the public opinions of the pamphlet-writing freeholder, it will prove, that he is *as well skilled in grammar as in politics*—armed for either field.

VERITAS complains of the severity of our strictures on the novel of Caroline (see our last volume, p. 478); observing that the friends of the authoress 'think it interesting.' We do not altogether concur with those who are too partial to give a fair or proper estimate of a work; but we allow that 'it will not hurt the morals of youth;' and we recommend the purchase of it to all who are disposed to assist the unfortunate, as the writer is 'worthy and in distress,' if we may credit the representations of her advocate.

# THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

J U L Y, 1798.

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*Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society of London,  
for the Year 1797. Part II. 4to. 10s. sewed. Elmsly.  
1797.*

IN a literary collection formed by voluntary contributions, it cannot be expected that all the parts should be equally important, or all the papers equally excellent. The different value, however, of regularly succeeding parts, cannot reflect real disgrace on such a work, unless any particular paper should appear to be absolutely unworthy of publication. We do not entertain so favourable an opinion of the second, as of the first part of this volume\*; but, that some of the articles claim for their authors the praise of industry and ability, we do not deny. The first article in this part is the eleventh of the volume.

Art. XI. 'On the Action of Nitre upon Gold and Platinum. By Smithson Tennant, Esq. F. R. S.'

These experiments are inconclusive and unimportant.

XII. 'Experiments to determine the Force of fired Gunpowder. By Benjamin, Count of Rumford, F. R. S. M. R. I. A.'

This is a curious and interesting paper. Mr. Robins had concluded from his experiments, that the force of the elastic fluid, generated in the combustion of gunpowder, was 1000 times as great as the mean pressure of the atmosphere. Bernouilli concluded it to be ten times, and count Rumford has (we think) proved it to be fifty thousand times as great. It appears, from our author's experiments, that no gas, which can be separated from gunpowder, is equal to its expansive force in exploding. Some other, more active, agent is therefore necessary; and, in his opinion, this is found in the water reduced to steam by the caloric set at liberty. In the water of

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XXII. p. 18.



crystallisation, and what is otherwise contained in gunpowder, a sufficiency of fluid is found, to explain all the effects.

Count Rumford's experiments are conducted with great ingenuity; particularly those in which the gunpowder is fired, by a red-hot ball communicating the fire through an iron spike, without any access to the air. The force of the gunpowder, which was thus wholly exerted on the tube, appeared immense. When the tube did not burst, no explosion was heard, though a large proportion of caloric was released. The quantity of air which escaped, when the vent was opened, was very inconsiderable; but a hard white mass was found in the tube, which required the assistance of a drill to clear from the iron; and the white hue began almost immediately to change to black. We lament that this substance was not chemically analysed. The most formidable trial of the force of the gunpowder we shall extract.

' In the second experiment, instead of 10 grains of powder, the former charge, the barrel was now quite filled with powder, and the steel hemisphere, with its oiled leather under it, was pressed down upon the end of the barrel by the same weight as was employed for that purpose in the first experiment, namely, a cannon weighing 808 lbs. In order to give a more perfect idea of the result of this important experiment, it may not be amiss to describe more particularly one of the principal parts of the apparatus employed in it, I mean the barrel. This barrel was made of the best hammered iron, and was of uncommon strength. Its length was  $2\frac{3}{4}$  inches; and though its diameter was also  $2\frac{3}{4}$  inches, the diameter of its bore was no more than  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an inch, or less than the diameter of a common goose quill. The length of its bore was 2.15 inches. Its diameter being  $2\frac{3}{4}$  inches, and the diameter of its bore only  $\frac{1}{4}$  of an inch, the thickness of the metal was  $1\frac{1}{4}$  inch; or, it was 5 times as thick as the diameter of its bore. The charge of powder was extremely small, amounting to but little more than  $\frac{1}{10}$  of a cubic inch; not so much as would be required to load a small pocket pistol, and not one-tenth part of the quantity frequently made use of for the charge of a common musket. I should be afraid to relate the result of this experiment, had I not the most indisputable evidence to produce in support of the facts. This inconsiderable quantity of gunpowder, when it was set on fire by the application of the red-hot ball to the vent tube, exploded with such inconceivable force as to burst the barrel asunder in which it was confined, notwithstanding its enormous strength; and with such a loud report as to alarm the whole neighbourhood. It is impossible to describe the

surprise of those who were spectators of this phenomenon. They literally turned pale with affright and astonishment, and it was some time before they could recover themselves. The barrel was not only completely burst asunder, but the two halves of it were thrown upon the ground in different directions: one of them fell close by my feet, as I was standing near the machinery to observe more accurately the result of the experiment. Though I thought it possible that the weight might be raised, and that the generated elastic vapour would make its escape, yet the bursting of the barrel was totally unexpected by me. It was a new lesson to teach me caution in these dangerous pursuits.' p. 253.

Count Rumford afterwards endeavours 'to determine the expansive force of the elastic vapour, generated in the combustion of gunpowder, in its various states of condensation, to ascertain the ratio of its elasticity to its density, and to measure the utmost force of this fluid, in its most dense state.' This he has done in a series of accurate experiments; and the relation of the density to the elasticity is expressed by a kind of hyperbolic curve. If we represent the density as equal to  $x$ , and the elasticity  $= y$ , this curve will be the locus of the equation, expressing the relation of  $x$  to  $y$ . As this curve is convex towards the horizontal line, the ratio of  $y$  to  $x$  must be continually increasing. In these experiments, the utmost force falls short of what it seemed to be in the former, viz. 54.752 atmospheres; and the value of  $y$  seems to be no more than 39.346 atmospheres. But this number, from the event of the experiments themselves, is too low; for a loud report was heard, which shows that a part of the force was lost. We have calculated from the ratio of the different weights in these experiments, when a loud report was heard, and when the weight was just raised; and the result made  $y$  equal to 43.796 atmospheres.

Some other experiments are added, which show that the effects of gunpowder are not always uniform; but the limits of these irregularities are at no great distance. The count also endeavours to explain the cause, why fire-arms do not more frequently burst when the expansion of the powder is so great. This, in his opinion, is partly because much of the powder remains unconsumed, and partly because there is some loss of force from the windage, in consequence of the ball not exactly fitting the bore. The first cause is well known; and too much time is employed in the proof: the second is equally obvious, and has been often noticed. The first is best remedied, by shooting the flame of a smaller charge through that of the gun, and thus firing the whole charge at once; the

second, by rendering that part of the bore, where the ball rests on the powder, conical. The paper concludes with a computation of the water that exists in gunpowder, and the force of the steam which it produces. These are fully sufficient to account for the most violent explosions.

XIII. 'A third Catalogue of the comparative Brightness of the Stars; with an introductory Account of an Index to Mr. Flamsteed's Observations of the fixed Stars contained in the second Volume of the *Historia Cœlestis*. To which are added, several useful Results derived from that Index. By William Herschel, LL. D. F. R. S.'

The index to Mr. Flamsteed's observations is a work of labour and utility. Its object is to direct the astronomer from the British catalogue, to the original observations on which the catalogue was founded. This was absolutely necessary, if, in a review of the heavens, we wished to know whether any star was lost or changed in its lustre, or whether, from inaccuracy or accident, it was not sought in its proper place. The following remarks, from the 'additions to the first catalogue,' are important.

'65 (Aquarii) has not been observed by Flamsteed; notwithstanding which we find it inserted in my first catalogue, where its relative brightness is given. It should be considered that, in the first place, several stars of which there are no observations in the second volume of Flamsteed's works, and which are, nevertheless, inserted in the British catalogue, such for instance as  $\theta$  and  $\iota$  Draconis, are well known to exist in the heavens. Now whether they were put into the catalogue from observations that are not in the second volume, or taken from other catalogues, it so happens that observations of them cannot be found. Therefore the want of a former observation by Flamsteed, is not sufficient to prove that a star does not exist. In the next place it should be recollected, that the method used to ascertain the stars in estimating their brightness, is not so accurate, as to point out with great precision the absolute situation of a star; and that, consequently, another star which happens to be not far from the place where the catalogue points out the star we look for, may be taken for it; especially when there are no neighbouring stars of the British catalogue that may induce us to exert uncommon attention in ascertaining the identity of such a star. Mayer, however, has an observation of 65 Aquarii in his zodiacal catalogue, No. 932, which puts the existence of the star out of doubt.' p. 298.

XIV. 'An Account of the Means employed to obtain an overflowing Well. In a Letter to the Right Honourable Sir Joseph Banks, Bart. K. B. P. R. S. from Mr. Benjamin Vuliamy.'

We are not acquainted with the situation of Norland house, where this well was sunk ; but, from the account, it is probably on the eastern coast, certainly where the sea has formerly overflowed. The well was sunk to the depth of 236 feet, and a tube was driven twenty-four feet lower. This passed the original rock which covered the spring. The difficulties arising from the immense quantities of sand brought up by the water, and from other causes, were surmounted by great perseverance ; and an overflowing well was at last produced.

XV. ‘ Observations of the changeable Brightness of the Satellites of Jupiter, and of the Variation in their apparent Magnitudes ; with a Determination of the Time of their rotatory Motions on their Axes. To which is added, a Measure of the Diameter of the second Satellite, and an Estimate of the comparative Size of all the four. By William Herschel, LL. D. F. R. S.’

The colours of the satellites of Jupiter differ, as the atmospheres are more dense or rare, or as the body of each reflects light more or less copiously. The first is white, but at some times more intensely so than at others ; the second is white, bluish, and ash-coloured ; the third always white, of different intensities ; the fourth dusky, and occasionally reddish.

XVI. ‘ Farther Experiments and Observations on the Affections and Properties of Light. By Henry Brougham, Jun. Esq. Communicated by Sir Charles Blagden, Knt. Sec. R. S.’

We noticed the first part of this paper in the nineteenth volume of our new arrangement. Some of the experiments here mentioned will, we think, admit a different explanation ; and, as light is now known to be a chemical body, the term *ray* is exceptionable. We shall, as in the former instance, give our author’s summary.

‘ *Proposition I.* The sun’s light consists of parts which differ in degree of *refrangency*, *reflexity*, *inflexity*, and *deflexity* ; and the rays which are most flexible have also the greatest *refrangency*, *reflexity*, and *flexity* ; or are most *refrangile*, *reflexile*, and *flexile*.

‘ *Proposition II.* Rays of compound light passing through the spheres of flexion and falling on the bending body, are not separated by their flexibility, either in their approach to, or return from the body.

‘ *Proposition III.* The colours of thin and those of thick plates are precisely of the same nature ; differing only in the thickness of the plate which forms them.

‘ *Proposition IV.* The colours of plates are caused by flexion, and may be produced without any transmission whatever.

‘ *Proposition V.* All the consequences deducible from the theory *a priori* are found to follow in fact.

‘ *Proposition VI.* The common fringes by flexion (called hitherto the “*three fringes*”), are found to be as numerous as the others.

‘ *Proposition VII.* The unusual image by Iceland crystal is caused by some power inherent in its particles, different from refraction, reflexion, and flexion.

‘ *Proposition VIII.* This power resembles refraction in its degree of action on different rays; but it resembles flexion within the body, in not taking place at a distance from it, in acting as well on perpendicular as on oblique rays, and in its sphere or space of exertion moving with the particles which it attends.’ p. 384.

XVII. ‘ *On Gouty and Urinary Concretions.* By William Hyde Wollaston, M. D. F. R. S.’

The gouty concrete, in Dr. Wollaston’s opinion, consists of lithic acid and volatile alkali; but we strongly suspect that what he calls lithic acid is a concrete of an earthy and an ammoniacal salt, probably with some excess of acid. We perceive too many marks of hasty conclusions from trifling experiments, to trust implicitly to his analysis. The fusible calculus consists of the common stone united with small sparkling crystals, whose form is that of a short triliteral prism, having one angle a right angle, and the other two equal, terminating in a pyramid of four or six sides. The crystals are formed of phosphoric acid, magnesia, and volatile alkali. The stone contains phosphorated lime, and generally some lithic acid. The smoother sorts of calculus consist, in our author’s opinion, of lime united with the acids of sugar and of phosphorus: the rougher specimens have generally some lithic acid in their interstices. What is called, in this paper, the ‘bone earth calculus,’ is of a pale brown, so smooth as to appear almost polished; it is laminated, and the laminæ do not closely adhere. The substance is wholly phosphorated lime. Calculi, from the prostate gland, consist of lime neutralised by the phosphoric acid, ‘tinged with the secretion’ of the glandular organ. This earthy salt is also said to be the basis of the sand, sometimes found in the pineal gland; while ossifications of the arteries, and the incrustations of the teeth, have a small excess of lime. Some conclusions drawn from these experiments, applicable to the treatment of persons affected by the different calculi, follow: but these are vague and unsatisfactory.

XVIII. ‘ *Experiments on carbonated hydrogenous Gas; with a View to determine whether Carbon be a simple or a compound Substance.* By Mr. William Henry. Communicated by Mr. Thomas Henry, F. R. S.’

We must commence our account of this article with a circumstance that has occasioned some inconvenience; we mean

the reference to the *volume* of the Transactions, which of late have been distinguished by the *years* only. Dr. Austin's opinion, which is the subject of Mr. Henry's examination, occurs in the 80th volume—that for the year 1790—and was noticed in the LXXth volume of our Review (p. 609). Heavy inflammable air is known to be a solution of charcoal in hydrogen, and is therefore called carbonated hydrogenous gas. On passing the electric shock through this air, Dr. Austin found it considerably dilated, seemingly from the production of additional hydrogen, which he supposed to be the consequence of a decomposition of the carbon.

We shall give an account of Mr. Henry's experiments on this subject in his own words; premising only, that the first conclusion is drawn from Dr. Austin's paper.

‘ 1. Carbonated hydrogenous gas, in its ordinary state, is permanently dilated by the electric shock to more than twice its original volume; and as light inflammable air is the only substance we are acquainted with, that is capable of occasioning so great an expansion, and of exhibiting the phenomena that appear on firing the electrified gas with oxygen, we may ascribe the dilatation to the production of hydrogenous gas.

‘ 2. The hydrogenous gas evolved by this process does not arise from the decomposition of charcoal; because the same quantity of that substance is contained in the gas after, as before electrization.

‘ 3. The hydrogenous gas proceeds from decomposed water; because when this fluid is abstracted as far as possible from the carbonated hydrogenous gas, before submitting it to the action of electricity, the dilatation cannot be extended beyond one-sixth of its usual amount.

‘ 4. The decomponent of the water is not a metallic substance, because carbonated hydrogenous gas is expanded when in contact only with a glass tube and gold, a metal which has no power of separating water into its formative principles.

‘ 5. The oxygen of the water (when the electric fluid is passed through carbonated hydrogenous gas, that holds this substance in solution), combines with the carbon, and forms carbonic acid. This production of carbonic acid, therefore, adds to the dilatation occasioned by the evolution of hydrogenous gas.

‘ 6. There is not, by the action of the electric matter on carbonated hydrogenous gas, any generation of azotic gas.

‘ 7. Carbon, it appears, therefore, from the united evidence of these facts, is still to be considered as an elementary body; that is, as a body with the composition of which we are unacquainted, but which may nevertheless yield to the labours of some future and more successful analyst.’ P. 414.

XIX. 'Observations and Experiments on the Colour of Blood. By William Charles Wells, M. D. F. R. S.'

Dr. Wells chiefly rests on the system of Mr. Delaval, which Dr. Bancroft has shown to be, on the whole, unfounded. The original author of this doctrine was Zucchini, whose name, from accident and neglect, has been undeservedly forgotten. Our author takes no more from Mr. Delaval, than may be fairly granted—the reflection of light from an opaque ground, *through* coloured particles. His application of this point, however, seems to be erroneous. When air or neutral salts render the blood more florid, they do not, in his opinion, produce any chemical change in it, but only furnish opaque bases for the reflection of more light; and this idea he endeavours to support by different experiments. But we do not see how he can avoid the conclusion, that, according to his system, the more opaque a body is, the brighter must be its colour; for, in almost every instance, the fluid is rendered opaque. That the colour of the blood is produced by iron, few now believe; and it did not require many arguments to confute the assertion. The doctor supposes its colour to be derived from the 'peculiar organisation of the animal matter of one of its parts.' It is certainly occasioned by the structure, and probably by the form, of the red globules themselves. Some miscellaneous observations on the colour of the blood follow,

XX. 'An Account of the Trigonometrical Survey, carried on in the Years 1795 and 1796, by Order of the Marquis Cornwallis, Master General of the Ordnance. By Colonel Edward Williams, Captain William Mudge, and Mr. Isaac Dalby. Communicated by the Duke of Richmond, F. R. S.'

We are glad to find this important national work continued: the details are not capable of abridgment. The plans of the principal triangles form a proper addition.

The volume, as usual, terminates with the list of presents and the names of the donors.

*The Works of Horatio Walpole, Earl of Orford. (Continued from p. 132.)*

WE renew, with great pleasure, our survey of the works of this interesting author. In the beginning of the fourth volume, we find the Catalogue of Engravers. This performance has long been known, and its merits have been properly appreciated.

The next piece is the letter to the editor of Chatterton's miscellanies. The controversy respecting Rowley is now almost forgotten, though it strongly engaged the attention of

the public when it arose. It is necessary to observe, that the editor above-mentioned accuses Mr. Walpole of treating the young aspiring poet with contempt and neglect, and insinuates that his melancholy catastrophe was, in part, occasioned by this behaviour. The facts are these. Chatterton communicated some poems, pretendedly ancient, to Mr. Walpole, with an anxious wish, that he would take *them* and *himself* under his patronage; yet he did not send them as his own property: they were said to belong to a friend. Mr. Walpole, when he replied, certainly had not discovered the deception. His answer, first published in the European Magazine, is sufficiently civil; and he almost promises to be the editor. The deceit, however, could not long escape him. He wrote no more to Chatterton; who at last demanded his papers when Mr. Walpole was setting out for Paris. As, on this account, they were not sent, an indignant letter was written; and the manuscripts were immediately delivered without a reply. This happened two years before the death of Chatterton. The 'Letter to the Editor' is excellent; but it is written with too great an affectation of dignity. We perceive too much of that dignity in the next contention, respecting Rousseau and Hume. Our author treats the Parisian literati with great contempt; and many deserved it. We shall, however, select Mr. Hume's reply; for, if it cannot be said '*tua res agitur*,' yet this short defence of literary men should not be wholly overlooked.

'You see I venture still to join these two epithets' (virtuous and philosophical) 'as inseparable and almost synonymous; though you seem inclined to regard them almost as incompatible. And here I have a strong inclination to say a few words in vindication both of myself and of my friends, venturing even to comprehend you in the number. What new prepossession has seized you to beat in so outrageous a manner your nurses of mount Helicon, and to join the outcry of the ignorant multitude against science and literature? For my part, I can scarce acknowledge any other ground of distinction between one age and another, between one nation and another, than their different progress in learning and the arts. I do not say between one man and another; because the qualities of the heart and temper and natural understanding are the most essential to the personal character; but being, I suppose, almost equal among nations and ages, do not serve to throw a peculiar lustre on any. You blame France for its fond admiration of men of genius; and there may no doubt be, in particular instances, a great ridicule in these affectations: but the sentiment in general was equally conspicuous in ancient Greece, in Rome during its flourishing period, in modern Italy, and even perhaps in England about the beginning of this century. If the case be now otherwise, it is what



we are to lament and be ashamed of. Our enemies will only infer, that we are a nation which was once at best but half civilized, and is now relapsing fast into barbarism, ignorance, and superstition. I beg you also to consider the great difference in point of morals between uncultivated and civilized ages.—But I find I am launching out insensibly into an immense ocean of common-place; I cut the matter therefore short, by declaring it as my opinion, that if you had been born a barbarian, and had every day cooked your dinner of horseflesh by riding on it fifty miles between your breech and the shoulder of your horse, you had certainly been an obliging, good-natured, friendly man; but at the same time, that reading, conversation, and travel have detracted nothing from those virtues, and have made a considerable addition of other valuable and agreeable qualities to them.' Vol. iv. p. 268.

This dispute would lead us too far. Mr. Walpole's share in it was a little *jeu d'esprit*. He wrote such a letter to Rousseau, as the king of Prussia might be supposed to have sent; and this occasioned no inconsiderable clamour. As we do not know that the letter has appeared in an English dress, we will translate it.

'MY DEAR JOHN JAMES,

'You have renounced Geneva, the place of your birth; you have subjected yourself to an expulsion from Switzerland;—a country which is so highly celebrated in your writings;—and France has outlawed you. Come therefore into my dominions: I admire your talents; I am amused with your fancies, which, by the way, engage you too much and too long. You must endeavour, at last, to be prudent and happy. You have made sufficient noise by singularities, not perfectly consistent with the character of a great man. Show your enemies that you have a little common sense; and this will vex *them*, without injuring *you*. My kingdom will afford you a quiet retreat. I wish you well, and will do you service, if you will accept it; but, if you obstinately reject my assistance, I shall say nothing of it. If you persist in exhausting your genius to discover new misfortunes, let me know what kind you would prefer. I am a king, and can persecute you to your heart's content; and, what your enemies will not do, I will desist from my persecution of you, when you no longer think it honourable to sustain it.' Vol. iv. p. 250.

The 'Reminiscences,' which follow, are light sketches of political incidents and other circumstances, in the manner of the French *Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire*. From these reminiscences, we will offer some extracts.

The following story is not generally known; and we may add, that it is scarcely credible.

'On the death of George the first, queen Caroline found in his

cabinet a proposal of the earl of Berkeley, then, I think, first lord of the admiralty, to seize the prince of Wales, and convey him to America, whence he should never be heard of more. This detestable project, copied probably from the earl of Falmouth's offer to Charles the second with regard to his queen, was in the handwriting of Charles Stanhope, elder brother of the earl of Harrington; and so deep was the impression deservedly made on the mind of George the second by that abominable paper, that all the favour of lord Harrington, when secretary of state, could never obtain the smallest boon to his brother, though but the subordinate transcriber. George the first was too humane to listen to such an atrocious deed. It was not very kind to the conspirators to leave such an instrument behind him;—and if virtue and conscience will not check bold bad men from paying court by detestable offers, the king's carelessness or indifference in such an instance ought to warn them of the little gratitude that such machinations can inspire or expect.' Vol. iv. p. 289.

The favour of queen Caroline to sir Robert Walpole was strongly displayed on the accession of George II.

' The unexpected death of George the first on his road to Hanover was instantly notified by lord Townshend, secretary of state, who attended his majesty, to his brother sir Robert Walpole, who as expeditiously was the first to carry the news to the successor and hail him king. The next step was, to ask who his majesty would please should draw his speech to the council—"Sir Spencer Compton," replied the new monarch.—The answer was decisive—and implied sir Robert's dismissal. Sir Spencer Compton was speaker of the house of commons, and treasurer, I think, at that time to his royal highness, who by that first command implied his intention of making sir Spencer his prime minister. He was a worthy man, of exceedingly grave formality, but of no parts—as his conduct immediately proved. The poor gentleman was so little qualified to accommodate himself to the grandeur of the moment, and to conceive how a new sovereign should address himself to his ministers, and he had also been so far from meditating to supplant the premier, that in his distress it was to sir Robert himself he had recourse, and whom he besought to make the draught of the king's speech for him. The new queen, a better judge than her husband of the capacities of the two candidates, and who had silently watched for a moment proper for overturning the new designations, did not lose a moment in observing to the king how prejudicial it would be to his affairs, to prefer to the minister in possession a man in whose own judgment his predecessor was the fittest person to execute his office. From that moment there was no more question of sir Spencer Compton as prime minister. He was created an earl, soon received the garter, and became president of that council, at the head of which he was much fitter to sit than to di-

rect. Fourteen years afterwards he again was nominated by the same prince to replace sir Robert as first lord of the treasury, on the latter's forced resignation; but not as prime minister, the conduct of affairs being soon ravished from him by that dashing genius the earl of Granville, 'who reduced him to a cypher for the little year in which he survived, and in which his incapacity had been obvious.

'The queen, impatient to destroy all hopes of change, took the earliest opportunity of declaring her own sentiments. The instance I shall cite will be a true picture of courtiers. Their majesties had removed from Richmond to their temporary palace in Leicester-fields on the very evening of their receiving notice of their accession to the crown; and the next day all the nobility and gentry in town crowded to kiss their hands: my mother amongst the rest, who, sir Spencer Compton's designation, and not its evaporation, being known, could not make her way between the scornful backs and elbows of her late devotees, nor could approach nearer to the queen than the third or fourth row:—but no sooner was she descried by her majesty, than the queen said aloud, "There I am sure I see a friend!"—The torrent divided and shrunk to either side; "and as I came away," said my mother, "I might have walked over their heads, if I had pleased."

'The pre-occupation of the queen in favour of Walpole must be explained. He had early discovered, that in whatever gallantries George prince of Wales indulged or affected, even the person of his princess was dearer to him than any charms in his mistresses; and though Mrs. Howard (afterwards lady Suffolk) was openly his declared favourite, as avowedly as the duchess of Kendal was his father's, sir Robert's sagacity discerned that the power would be lodged with the wife, not with the mistress; and he not only devoted himself to the princess, but totally abstained from even visiting Mrs. Howard.' Vol. iv. p. 294.

Of the unjustifiable suppression of the will of George I. we meet with this *reminiscence*.

'At the first council held by the new sovereign, Dr. Wake, archbishop of Canterbury, produced the will of the late king, and delivered it to the successor, expecting it would be opened and read in council. On the contrary, his majesty put it into his pocket, and stalked out of the room, without uttering a word on the subject. The poor prelate was thunderstruck, and had not the presence of mind or the courage to demand the testament's being opened, or at least to have it registered. No man present chose to be more hardy than the person to whom the deposit had been trusted—perhaps none of them immediately conceived the possible violation of so solemn an act so notoriously existent. Still, as the king never mentioned the will more, whispers only by degrees in-

formed the public, that the will was burnt, at least that its injunctions were never fulfilled.

What the contents were was never ascertained. Report said, that forty thousand pounds had been bequeathed to the duchess of Kendal; and more vague rumours spoke of a large legacy to the queen of Prussia, daughter of the late king. Of that bequest demands were afterwards said to have been frequently and roughly made by her son the great king of Prussia, between whom and his uncle subsisted much inveteracy. Vol. iv. p. 297.

One striking trait of sir Robert Walpole's character appears from incidental particulars in these reminiscences — we mean great sagacity. By observation of the most trifling circumstances, and attentively comparing them with others within his knowledge, he seems to have developed the motives and views of those around him, and consequently was able, at the moment, to adopt the most decisive and judicious mode of conduct. In these recollections, also, the weakness, the caprice, and indiscretion, of Frederic prince of Wales, are, in several instances, pointed out. The character of the queen we shall present to our readers.

Queen Caroline was said to have been very handsome at her marriage, soon after which she had the small-pox; but was little marked by it, and retained a most pleasing countenance. It was full of majesty or mildness as she pleased, and her penetrating eyes expressed whatever she had a mind they should. Her voice too was captivating, and her hands beautifully small, plump and graceful. Her understanding was uncommonly strong; and so was her resolution. From their earliest connection she had determined to govern the king, and deserved to do so; for her submission to his will was unbounded, her sense much superior, and his honour and interest always took place of her own: so that her love of power, that was predominant, was dearly bought, and rarely ill-employed. She was ambitious too of fame; but, shackled by her devotion to the king, she seldom could pursue that object. She wished to be a patroness of learned men: but George had no respect for them or their works; and her majesty's own taste was not very exquisite, nor did he allow her time to cultivate any studies. Her generosity would have displayed itself, for she valued money but as the instrument of her good purposes: but he stinted her alike in almost all her passions; and though she wished for nothing more than to be liberal, she bore the imputation of his avarice, as she did of others of his faults. Often when she had made prudent and proper promises of preferment, and could not persuade the king to comply, she suffered the breach of word to fall on her, rather than reflect on him. Though his affection and confidence in her were implicit, he lived in dread of being supposed to be governed by her; and that silly parade was extended even to the most private moments of

business with my father: whenever he entered, the queen rose, curtsied and retired, or offered to retire. Sometimes the king condescended to bid her stay—on both occasions she and sir Robert had previously settled the business to be discussed. Sometimes the king would quash the proposal in question; and yield after re-talking it over with her—but then he boasted to sir Robert that he himself had better considered it.

‘ One of the queen’s delights was the improvement of the garden at Richmond; and the king believed she paid for all with her own money—nor would he ever look at her intended plans, saying, he did not care how she flung away her own revenue. He little suspected the aids sir Robert furnished to her from the treasury. When she died, she was indebted twenty thousand pounds to the king.

‘ Her learning was superficial; her knowledge of languages as little accurate. The king, with a bluff Westphalian accent, spoke English correctly. The queen’s chief study was divinity; and she had rather weakened her faith than enlightened it. She was at least not orthodox; and her confidante lady Sundon, an absurd and pompous simpleton, swayed her countenance towards the less-believing clergy. The queen however was so sincere at her death, that when archbishop Potter was to administer the sacrament to her, she declined taking it, very few persons being in the room. When the prelate retired, the courtiers in the anti-room crowded round him, crying, “My lord, has the queen received?” His grace artfully eluded the question, only saying most devoutly, “her majesty was in a heavenly disposition”—and the truth escaped the public.

‘ She suffered more unjustly by declining to see her son, the prince of Wales, to whom she sent her blessing and forgiveness—but conceiving the extreme distress it would lay on the king, should he thus be forced to forgive so impenitent a son, or to banish him again if once recalled, she heroically preferred a meritorious husband to a worthless child.

‘ The queen’s greatest error was too high an opinion of her own address and art: she, imagined that all who did not dare to contradict her, were imposed upon; and she had the additional weakness of thinking that she could play off many persons without being discovered. That mistaken humour, and at other times her hazarding very offensive truths, made her many enemies: and her duplicity in fomenting jealousies between the ministers, that each might be more dependent on herself, was no sound wisdom.’  
Vol. iv. P. 304.

Various minute and interesting facts occur in this part of the volume, which we shall forbear to notice, as we would excite curiosity rather than gratify it. We may add, that the readers of French memoirs will here find anecdotes much more

interesting, and related with more *naïveté* and propriety, than in their favourite volumes.

The hieroglyphic tales, which follow, were intended by Mr. Walpole for publication. He styles them whimsical trifles, and observes that they were designed 'to vary the stale and beaten class of stories and novels, which, though works of invention, are almost always devoid of imagination.' It is difficult to describe them: they are fairy tales, still more whimsical than those which have received that title; and the adventures are as surprising as those of Gulliver or the baron Munchausen. In the preface, and in the tales, are some satirical allusions to modern literature; and the whole will afford, to many readers, no inconsiderable entertainment.

Parodies of three of lord Chesterfield's letters to his son are introduced by some sarcastic observations. As the earl, in his 'multitudinous' precepts, forgot generosity, patriotism, charity, and friendship, and confined himself to the graces, the author thinks the instructions will do as well, perhaps better, for a lady; and, in his preface, runs over the outline of the system with this view, and exposes it with success.

The remarks on Dr. Johnson's writings are short, but full of good sense. 'Strange Occurrences, being a continuation of Baker's Chronicle,' are only a few remarkable events. One is, that the descendants of the first Charles and Oliver Cromwell intermarried in the fourth generation: another we shall select.

'William Pitt, lord Chatham, was a second son, and became prime minister of England. His rival and antagonist was Henry Fox lord Holland, a second son likewise. Lord Holland's second son Charles Fox, and lord Chatham's second son William Pitt, are now rivals and antagonists: Fox has as great or greater parts than his father, with much better elocution, and equal power of reasoning. Mr. Pitt has not the dazzling commanding eloquence of his father, but argues much better. Perhaps there is not on record an instance of two statesmen who were rivals, being succeeded in equal rivalry by their sons—certainly not with so many concurrent circumstances.' Vol. iv. p. 366.

The 'Detached Thoughts' are not singular or striking; and the miscellaneous verses collected by Mr. Walpole himself—the scattered remains of his earlier productions—do not add greatly to his literary character.

The letters between Mr. Walpole and Mr. West conclude the fourth volume. They were school-fellows closely attached to each other; and their epistolary correspondence sports with all the playful levity of youth. Mr. West's life was short, and was tinged with the pale hue of sickness, which did not infect his mind. He possessed the tenderness of heart

and delicacy of feeling, so often accompanying infirm health; and his transitory gaiety seems an exertion ill suited to his constitution. In these respects Mr. Walpole resembled him; but our author, with a tender habit, exceeded his eightieth year. In this correspondence we find nothing which would greatly interest our readers, if separated from the rest. Some of the letters were written from the continent, and contain accounts of trivial adventures, rather than profound or recondite remarks.

(To be continued.)

*Biographical, Literary, and Political Anecdotes, of several of the most eminent Persons of the present Age. Never before printed. With an Appendix; consisting of original, explanatory, and scarce Papers. By the Author of Anecdotes of the late Earl of Chatham. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman. 1797.*

AT a time when anecdotes, particularly those of distinguished political characters, are eagerly read, a work like the present is calculated to excite attention; and, when we recollect that the former anecdotes, published by the editor of the work before us, were in general true, we may reasonably expect a continuance of the same regard to veracity.

Many of the persons to whom the anecdotes relate, are dead; but many are still in existence. In the arrangement of the individuals, no regularity is observed: the accounts are loosely written; and superfluous matter is sometimes introduced.

In the first chapter, the duke of Grafton is brought forward: but nothing new is mentioned with regard to that nobleman. Some novel particulars, however, relative to the author of the letters of Junius, are given in this chapter. It is affirmed, that he was a native of Ireland, and was educated at Trinity-college, Dublin; that he was not in affluent circumstances, and yet did not write for pecuniary aid; that he did not follow any particular profession; that, after a considerable interval from the cessation of his celebrated letters, he wrote eighteen political essays under the title of the Whig; and that he died at Madras, to which settlement he had accompanied earl Macartney. We cannot vouch for the truth of these statements; and, as the mention of the real name of the person who assumed the signature of Junius is not a part of the information, the whole may be deemed problematical.

Of the duke of Leeds little is said; and the chapter which professes to relate to the duke of Dorset, scarcely contains a syllable besides the unimportant intelligence, that the noble duke has more than once recommended the publication of a

complete 'collection of the poems written by the Sackville family.'

The late duke of Rutland is represented as the author of two pamphlets of little merit, written while he was at the university of Cambridge. He is also mentioned as the person whose recommendation, urged in an accidental meeting with sir James Lowther, now earl of Lonsdale, procured for Mr. Pitt his first seat in parliament, in 1780, when he had offered himself at Cambridge without success.

Horace Walpole, the last earl of Orford, is introduced on account of two political tracts which he published in 1763 and 1764, one against the peace and the duty on cider, the other in condemnation of the dismissal of general Conway. His address to the corporation of Lynn, on his declining to be re-elected, is given at full length.

Of the bishop of Hereford it is said, that he

'has shewn himself to be as able a politician as he is a divine. He was early attached to the whigs, whose conduct and principles, when forced from the government by lord Bute, in the year 1762, he defended with zeal and ability. At that time was published a tract of some celebrity, which was considered to be the manifesto of the tory party, entitled, "A Letter from the Cocoa-Tree to the Country Gentlemen." It consisted chiefly of a severe arraignment of the conduct of the duke of Newcastle, the duke of Devonshire, and the duke of Cumberland; relative to their forming an opposition to the earl of Bute. As this pamphlet might be said to contain the creed of the tories at that time, Dr. Butler judged it to be not less proper than necessary, to oppose to it the creed of the whigs, in another tract, which he entitled, "An Address to the Cocoa-Tree; from a Whig." The closeness of the argument, the strength of the reasoning, the temper and elegance of the language, were all greatly admired. He shewed the principles and conduct of the whigs to be strictly constitutional: and he vindicated the proceedings and opinions of his friends, in a manner so excellent and masterly, as to reflect not less honour upon his own talents, than upon their characters.

'His next tract was called, "A Consultation on the Subject of a Standing Army, held at the King's Arms Tavern, on the 28th of February, 1763." The arguments for and against the measure are well drawn, and apply with peculiar propriety to the period of time in which it was written.' Vol. i. p. 70.

This prelate's delineation of the character of Mr. Legge is better known than his other pieces.

No anecdotes that are new are here related of Charles Townshend; nor is any thing very important communicated respecting Mr. serjeant Adair or sir Grey Cooper, who are the next in order. A short account of the bishop of Ossory



follows, whose defence of lord Howe's conduct during the American war is represented as able and satisfactory.

The 'secret and true history of the Irish octennial bill' is the subject of the next chapter. When the commons of Ireland agreed to the heads of a septennial bill, they did not wish such a measure to be ultimately sanctioned; and therefore they inserted such a preamble, as might induce the king and council of Great-Britain to reject it. By representing it as the undoubted *right* of the Irish to have new parliaments more frequently than before, they knew that they should give disgust to the British ministers, upon whom they intended that the odium of the rejection of the bill should fall. The latter struck out the preamble, changed the term to eight years, and made such other alterations as, they thought, would render the bill unsuccessful in the house of commons, whose leaders would then become obnoxious to the public. But the people so clamorously demanded the bill, that the members were constrained to agree to it. The effects of the statute, however, have been of little moment in the scale of liberty.

The article concerning sir James Caldwell is not interesting in proportion to its length. We are informed, that

'This gentleman has the honour to stand foremost in the modern history of parliamentary literature. He was the first person who wrote a regular series of parliamentary debates, from memory and a real attendance. These debates are of the house of commons of Ireland, in the first session after the treaty of peace in 1763. These debates are not only written in excellent language, but are allowed to be very correct.' Vol. i. p. 120.

Sir John Dalrymple is treated with severity for his *Memoirs of Great-Britain*, as having published them for the purpose of stigmatising the characters of supposed patriots.

'This work deserves to be noticed, not more for the baseness of its design, than the falsehood of its contents.' Vol. i. p. 182.

'The design was manifest. It had been premeditated some time: the extraordinary industry shewn in the compilation sufficiently marked it. No event had happened which called for the necessity or propriety of such a work. It was a voluntary labour, undertaken and executed with a view to defame particular characters.

'It was one of lord Mansfield's common and favourite practices to establish facts upon inferences. He conceived that he shewed his ingenuity by this mode of displaying his abilities. And the inference from these papers' [*annexed to the Memoirs*] 'is, that there was a great deal of knavery and villainy among the opponents of Charles the Second: therefore all opponents to a king's measures are rogues and villains.' Vol. i. p. 184.

We must observe, however, that no readers of judgment would draw such an inference, though sir John and his patrons might wish that conclusion to prevail.

Of William earl of Mansfield it is said with truth, that,

‘ In all those political causes concerning the press, in which the crown was party, he was partial in the extreme. His rule of law uniformly was, that the crown was never wrong in those causes. To the liberty of the press he was a sincere and implacable enemy. His definition of this liberty was, a permission to print without a license, what formerly could only be printed with one. In trials for libels, he has been heard to deliver such language from the bench, as ought to have flushed the jury with indignation. In those trials, his invariable practice was, in his charge to the jury, to make a laboured reply to the defendant’s counsel. Will any candid person say this was proper conduct in a judge who ought to be strictly impartial? This is not the language of prejudice—for the truth of it an appeal may safely be made to all those persons who are yet alive, who heard him upon those occasions.’ Vol. i. p. 234.

His support of a popular point against the crown is placed in a true light, in the following passage.

‘ Upon one occasion only he shone as a politician : this was his attack on the suspending and dispensing prerogative, which was undoubtedly made with great ability, but the case may be said to have been more a matter of jurisprudence than politics, and although he gave to his eloquence all the advantages he had acquired by a long exercise, yet the merit of the attack is lessened, when it is recollected that lord Camden had maintained the necessity of a suspending power in a case of imminent danger of famine, which was the fact, and that lord Mansfield warmly embraced this opportunity of upholding a true constitutional doctrine, to gratify his envy and hatred of lord Camden. His motive was founded in personal rancour, not in constitutional. All those who are acquainted with the history of the time will not hesitate to admit this distinction. But the tract which was published, called “ A Speech against the Suspending and Dispensing Prerogative,” and contained all that lord Mansfield advanced in his speech upon this subject in the house of lords, was not written by his lordship, although generally believed to have been his production, nor was he privy to the writing or publication. The pamphlet was written by lord Temple, and lord Lyttelton, and a gentleman who was present at the debate, and states in the form of one speech all the arguments on that side. However, lord Mansfield’s motives may be excused, if the severity of his attack makes ministers more assiduous in their duty, for they had information of the approaching danger, and did not attend to it ; if they had, such attention would have prevented

the necessity of resorting to so violent a remedy.' Vol. i. p. 355.

The account of the lord-chancellor Camden chiefly contains a repetition of old statements; and that of earl Temple is partly borrowed from the 'Anecdotes of the late Earl of Chatham.' Speaking of earl Temple, our author says,

'Few men's characters have been more mistaken, or more misrepresented, than his lordship's. When a great personage said of him, "That he was undoubtedly a great man, but that he loved to embarrass government," he only shewed that he had been misinformed. No man could be more zealously attached to a constitutional government than he was. But he detested, with fervency and sincerity, a government of secrecy, hypocrisy, and treachery.' Vol. ii. p. 28.

That George Grenville, while he was the *offensible* minister, was guided by the king's *secret* advisers, we have no reason to doubt.

'The principal features of Mr. Grenville's administration are the persecution of Mr. Wilkes, and the oppression of North America: neither of which can, perhaps, strictly be called his own. But it was not until after his death that it was authentically known these measures had not originated with himself; that they had been suggested to him by others—by the confidants of Carlton-house, and the confidants of lord Bute. So true it is, that ministers have often been seduced into paths, without seeing the hand that led them. He had too much of reserve in his temper, and of what the French call *hauteur* in his manner, to open himself freely even to his friends; so that he became his own enemy as to his real disposition, and wholly so in bearing the odium of these measures.' Vol. ii. p. 76.

The unjustifiable scheme of rendering the American colonies the links of a chain of ministerial patronage, is thus developed.

'A plan was recommended by a naval officer from Boston, of new-modelling the governments of that country' [*North-America*]. 'This scheme commenced, in idea, before the conclusion of the peace in 1763. The project was flattering to the minister, because it gave him an immense increase of patronage, and if any cause can be assigned for his preferring Florida to Porto Rico, it must be the further increase of patronage, and making Florida into two governments. A junto of sycophants and confidants, whom lord Bute encouraged, and with whom he principally advised, eagerly embraced this project of distributing the American revenues amongst their relations and dependents.

'When the peace was concluded, the British army was not

withdrawn. Several pretences were made for keeping it in America; such as an Indian war, and the necessity of having garrisons in the back settlements. The first measure was a division of the country into military districts, with a brigadier-general in each, all of them depending upon the commander in chief, who was totally independent of the civil power.

‘ This scheme of new-modelling the governments in America, in order to increase the power and patronage of the crown, was the sole cause of the war, and the loss of America. It is true, that occasional circumstances were the immediate causes of particular events; but it is always to be remembered, that those circumstances, and every instruction sent to America, from the resignation of Mr. Pitt in the month of October 1761, to the defeat of general Burgoyne in the month of October 1777, originated in the great design of rendering America subservient to the purposes of the minister.

‘ The prominent features of the grand plan were these: first, to raise a revenue in America by act of parliament, to be applied to support an army, to pay a large salary to the governor, another to the lieutenant-governor, salaries to the judges of the law and admiralty; thus, the whole government, executive and judicial, was to be rendered entirely independent of the people, and wholly dependent on the minister. Second, to make a new division of the colonies, to reduce the number of them by making the small ones more extensive, to make them all royal governments, with an aristocracy in each. This order of aristocrats was not intended to be hereditary, but something like the lords of session in Scotland, for life only. But in a little time they would doubtless have become hereditary, like the nobility of France, whose origin is similar. Amherst was the first person who suggested the idea of an American peerage; at one time he had thoughts of being created an American peer, with precedence of all others.

‘ In order to support this military system, which was only the basis of the plan, it was necessary to create a fund to establish a revenue, which would soon have been followed by a system of corruption. This gave rise to the American stamp act.’ Vol. ii. p. 81.

In the anecdotes of lord George Germain, the writer is too much inclined to palliate the conduct of his lordship at Minden. We agree with him in acquitting the English general of cowardice; but that private resentment which occasioned so gross a neglect of public duty, merited a severe punishment.

When lord George, even after the surrender of earl Cornwallis at York-town, persisted in his ideas of the necessity of a continuance of military coercion, and declared, that the

ruin of Great-Britain would follow the dereliction of her sovereignty over the colonies, he thought that he

‘ delivered the opinion of a much greater authority than his own. But he was not entrusted with the real secret. There were other persons who were honoured with a larger share of confidence than he was at this time : and this party triumphed. They resolved to remove lord George Germain from office ; and to recall sir Henry Clinton from America, who had requested it ; and to make one measure the consequence of the other, although there was no connection between the two cases ; but in order to make a connection between them, they applied to sir Guy Carleton to succeed sir Henry Clinton ; they were perfectly well assured, that sir Guy Carleton would not go to America, while lord George Germain continued secretary of state for the American department. The manœuvre succeeded.’ Vol. ii. p. 137.

Tedious quotations swell the article which relates to Dr. Franklin ; and, on the other hand, the chapter which follows is too short ; as it concerns Mr. Burke, his son, his brother, and his cousin, of whose pamphlets some account is given.

The third volume consists of letters and other papers. The Whig (by Junius) being little known, we will transcribe a part of one of the papers published under that title ; premising, *to prevent misapplication*, that it appeared in November 1779.

‘ It is the duty of public virtue to exercise various attention to the several assaults that may be made by power, and will be ever made in some degree, against the interests of the community. Innumerable are the modes in which hypocrisy may deceive, tyranny oppress, corruption debauch, or negligence squander ; any one of which crimes, unchecked, would run to general ruin. But if, in monstrous and unheard-of conspiracy, they should all unite against the liberty and glory of a country, throughout all the betrayed trusts of the public ; active indeed ought to be the exertion of the people against such danger. The whig spirit existing in the country must collect and co-operate. If compressed in small compass, its spring will be the stronger. The public traitor may insult falling liberty with the reproach that all her spirit is extinguished ; that no public virtue remains ; that every man is base and wicked as himself ; but the reproach will operate as it ought. It will give vigour to strength, and activity to resentment. It will sharpen public spirit, and point the virtue of the patriot with the honour of the man.

‘ Vigilance should be in proportion to danger. If we have been remiss, and if public danger have, in consequence, increased, let us now double our watch, and redeem our negligence.’ Vol. iii. p. 3.

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‘ The British constitution hath changed its form, and is losing its

spirit. Some magic has metamorphosed the ancient pyramid into the deformity of a Chinese pagoda. The beautiful strength of its order is gone; and we now tremble for the narrowed base; oppressed by the middle; with monsters at the top!

‘How to recal the spirit that hath fled, and how to raise that which remains; how to restore external stability, and by what best means to purify into its ancient vigour the interior of the constitution, is the business which now demands the active vigilance of all—for the danger is universal and imminent.’ Vol. iii. p. 4.

This specimen will suffice to show the complexion of most of the papers in the Appendix, friendly as they are to the cause of liberty, and adverse to ministerial encroachments.

In our survey of this work, we have met with less novelty than we expected from the title; but, we may safely recommend it as affording, in some instances, important and interesting information to those readers who are studious of politics and history.

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*Three Treatises. On the Brain, the Eye, and the Ear. Illustrated by Tables. By Alexander Monro, M. D. &c. 4to. 1l. 7s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.*

WE feel some difficulty in speaking of these treatises as we ought. To treat a learned and eminent professor with indifference, or to commend an attempt in which his genius and talents do not shine, would be equally improper and unjust. We cannot praise the work before us, or the temper in which it is seemingly written; yet we would not, on the other hand, severely blame the author for urging what he deems justifiable claims. He might, indeed, have urged them with less irritability; and even a superficial inquirer may observe, that this eagerness has long been suppressed, and blazes only when his chief antagonist is no more.

Dr. Monro first claims the discovery of the communication between the lateral ventricles and the third ventricle of the brain. This communication is denied by some respectable anatomists; and, very lately, the discovered passage has been said to be obvious only when the brain is drawn up, and, in reality, to be formed in the moment of discovery. Having often examined the disputed foramen, we think this account inconsistent with the appearances; for its edges are smooth, without the slightest resemblance of a lacerated part. Perhaps the just conclusion is, that this is not the constant structure, though perhaps the most frequent.

The author thinks that water is never collected on the out-

side of the brain in hydrocephalus; but that, when it appears there, it has passed from the ventricles in consequence of the altered texture of the brain. Perhaps this may be true, when hydrocephalus is an idiopathic disease: but we have seen at least one instance where it was collected externally, after fever attended with phrensy. The alteration in the texture of the brain refers to the softness and diminished bulk of this organ, after chronic hydrocephalus, and seems to be brought forward in support of the discovery that solid parts are taken up by the absorbents. This opinion Dr. Monro affirms that he taught in 1759. At what time Mr. J. Hunter pronounced the same opinion, is not ascertained; but it seems to have been several years afterwards. The discovery, however, is not worth a moment's contest; for it is no more than a very obvious deduction from facts; and each author should have gone farther, to prove by what process the living part, thus absorbed, dies and is dissolved; for, until the circulation ceases, and the solid matter is accessible to the solvent power of the fluids, no absorption *can* take place. This point requires more ample physiological disquisition than Dr. Monro has given it. He admits the fluidity, in considering the cure of hydrocephalus, but neglects the previous death of the part. He thinks that mercury, joined with squills, may be serviceable in the cure, though they have hitherto failed in his hands. The cure of hydrocephalus, by a surgical operation, is hopeless, except when the water is known to be external, and the texture of the brain uninjured.

In the treatise on the eye, Dr. Monro again goes over the anatomical description of the eye, repeating much of what has been said before, apparently that he may add every circumstance peculiarly his own. The refractive powers of the human lens appear, from his experiments, to be much greater than those of water, and less than those of glass—nearly between both; the focus of parallel rays falling on it, being at the distance of about  $\frac{3}{4}$  of an inch from its centre. The part of the image lost by falling on the entrance of the optic nerve is about  $\frac{1}{5}$  of its distance. The retina was found, by Mr. Fyfe, to be continued on the inner side of the ciliary processes, and to terminate in the outer edge of the lens: it enters double between the ciliary processes, like the pia mater between the doublings of the brain. That this part of the retina receives a second picture of the object, and assists vision, is a fanciful supposition: it would rather confuse it: and the argument, that those animals which see best in the dark, have the tapetum of a light colour, is not more important. Light is certainly lost in the black lining; but, where the light is weak, none can be spared. Our physician, indeed, forsakes the supposition as soon as it is formed; for he remarks that, in *all*

animals who have the tapetum, it is black in the doublings of the ciliary processes. The lens is kept in its place by the two layers of the coat of the vitreous humour, assisted in part by the retina.

Of the means by which the eye is enabled to give a distinct picture of objects at different distances, we shall add our author's opinion.

‘ Upon the whole : it appears to me,

‘ 1. That the iris, by lessening the pupil, and intercepting the most diverging rays of light, renders the picture of near objects more distinct.

‘ 2. That the recti muscles, by their action, lengthen the axis, because they press chiefly on the sides of the eyeball ; and, further, the cornea is not only more dilatable than the sclerotic in general is, but it will be found that the sclerotic, in man and other animals, is thinner and more dilatable, in its anterior part, and in its posterior part where the picture is formed, than it is on its sides.

‘ 3. That the two oblique muscles forming an oblique girth around the eyeball, between the lens and bottom of the eye, must, by their pressure, increase the distance of the lens from the retina, or increase the length of the posterior part of the axis of the eyeball.

‘ The orbicularis palpebrarum renders the fore and middle part of the cornea, opposite to the pupil, more convex ; and increases the length of the anterior part of the axis of the eyeball. And it is evident that all these means may concur in forming perfect vision.’ P. 137.

It may be observed, that we can at any time prove the truth of the last means, by a contraction of the eye for the purpose of seeing distant objects, when we always feel a considerable pressure on the ball. Dr. Monro claims this discovery, first published in the *Philosophical Transactions* for 1794, by Dr. Hoffack. Some remarks on the lacrymal ducts, of no great importance, are added to what appeared in the ‘ *Observations, Anatomical and Physiological,*’ in 1758.

The next treatise is on the ear. What Dr. Monro had before done was, 1st, to trace the *portio mollis* on the internal parts of the ear ; 2dly, to describe the parts of the ear, in the whale, in amphibious animals and fishes. In opposition to his sentiments, professor Scarpa has represented the description of the human ear as inaccurate, and the account of the communication of the *meatus auditorius externus* with the interior parts of the ear, and of these with each other, in cartilaginous fishes, as a mere fiction. Dr. Camper has denied the existence of the semi-circular canals in whales, and doubted that of the *meatus auditorius externus* in the skate.



This treatise is designed as an answer to those animadversions.

It might be sufficient to remark that Dr. Monro, in again pursuing the subject, has convinced himself of the accuracy of his former descriptions: yet we cannot avoid adding, that a true dignity of mind would have suggested a different conduct. If MM. Camper and Scarpa had differed from us in point of *facts*, we should have left these to the judgment of an impartial posterity, enlightened as it would be by farther observations and the inquiries of others. We mean not to say that the doctor has been guilty of any mistake: on the contrary, from a minute examination, we believe him to be correct in his descriptions; but he must be aware that, if *he* has been misled by appearances, the attestations of all the learned societies in Europe, *drawn from his own preparations*, could be of no avail; for they can see only what is shown. The same apparent structure, therefore, which has misled him, will equally mislead them.

The plates of these treatises are in general new: they excel those which have been given in the 'Nervous System,' and in the work on 'Fishes;' but this is faint praise, and they deserve no more. The general splendour of the publication should have been accompanied with superior ornaments. We lament the nationality which induces the professor to adhere to the engravers of North-Britain—or rather the little improvement made by these in an art which advances so rapidly at a short distance from them.

*Poems, by S. T. Coleridge, second Edition \*. To which are now added Poems by Charles Lamb, and Charles Lloyd. Small 8vo. 6s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797,*

AS no author can justly be offended at liberal criticism, Mr. Coleridge 'returns his acknowledgments to the different reviewers for the assistance which they have afforded him in detecting his poetic deficiencies.' Upon a revival of his productions, he has omitted some with which he was less pleased, and has substituted new pieces for the discarded poems.

The dedication is one of the novelties of this edition. It is written in blank verse; and, while it does credit to the author, it also impresses a favourable idea of the brother to whom he offers the produce of his talents. The following passage is a part of it.

'Who counts the beatings of the lonely heart,  
That Being knows, how I have lov'd thee ever,

\* See our review of the former edition, Vol. XVII. (New Arr.) p. 209.

Lov'd as a brother, as a son rever'd thee !  
O tis to me an ever-new delight,  
My eager eye glist'ning with mem'ry's tear,  
To talk of thee and thine ; or when the blast  
Of the shrill winter, rattling our rude fast,  
Endears the cleanly hearth and social bowl ;  
Or when, as now, on some delicious eve,  
We in our sweet sequester'd orchard-plot  
Sit on the tree crook'd earth-ward ; whose old boughs,  
That hang above us in an arborous roof,  
Stirr'd by the faint gale of departing May  
Send their loose blossoms slanting o'er our heads !' P. K.

The 'Ode on the Departing Year' (1796) was first published separately ; and, when we reviewed it, we condemned the affectation and pomposity of the writer : but the piece, though it has since been altered, is still liable, in some degree, to the same imputations.

From the new sonnets we select that which is addressed to the river Otter, as it will gratify those who love to refer to the scenes of early enjoyment.

' Dear native brook ! wild streamlet of the west !  
How many various-fated years have past,  
What blissful and what anguish'd hours, since last  
I skim'd the smooth thin stone along thy breast,  
Numbering its light leaps ! Yet so deep imprest  
Sink the sweet scenes of childhood, that mine eyes  
I never shut amid the sunny blaze,  
But strait with all their tints thy waters rise,  
Thy crossing plank, thy margin's willowy maze,  
And bedded sand that vein'd with various dyes  
Gleam'd thro' thy bright transparence to the gaze !  
Visions of childhood ! oft have ye beguil'd  
Lone manhood's cares, yet waking fondest sighs,  
Ah ! that once more I were a careless child !' P. 78.

The 'Reflections on having left a Place of Retirement' evince a feeling heart. The comparison between the weeping eyes of a humane friend and the unmoved face of another equally benevolent, and the contrast between the latter and those who merely affect sympathy, are well drawn.

' Sweet is the tear that from some Howard's eye  
Drops on the cheek of one, he lifts from earth :  
And he, that works me good with unmov'd face,  
Does it but half : he chills me while he aids,  
My benefactor, not my brother man !  
Yet even this, this cold beneficence

Seizes my praise, when I reflect on those  
 The sluggish Pity's vision-weaving tribe!  
 Who sigh for wretchedness, yet shun the wretched,  
 Nursing in some delicious solitude  
 Their slothful loves and dainty sympathies !' p. 103.

In the invitation to Mr. Lloyd, many of the lines are stiff and affected; and a passage near the close of the piece may be misconstrued. When the poet says, 'she, whom I love, shall love thee,' will not some readers be reminded of Cato's offer of his wife to his friend, even though such a thought could not enter into the head of the writer?

The lines 'on the Christening of a Friend's Child' are trifling; and some of the expressions and rhymes are ludicrous, though not intended to be so.

In Mr. Lloyd's poems \*, occasional alterations have been made for the present edition; but they do not require any other notice than a remark that they may in general be regarded as improvements; and, with regard to those pieces of Mr. Lamb which form a part of the volume, we may observe that most of them have considerable merit.

*Travels in the Two Sicilies, and some Parts of the Apennines.*  
 (Concluded from p. 30.)

THE Euganean mountains are not a part of the two Sicilies, or of the adjacent burning islands. They are, however, volcanic, though their activity is beyond the earliest records of history; and, in such regions, we must with pleasure and instruction follow our able and industrious author. The ground, indeed, is not wholly new, as our countryman Sir John Strange has given a descriptive catalogue of the principal lavas found upon those mountains.

Some of the lava is granitous; and, in this, nodules of quartz are found to exist; but these are evidently a secondary production, formed by the filtration of water. In one part of these mountains, carbonate of lime occurs, united with flints in a manner so gradually varying, that the former seems almost to change into the latter, though no change really takes place. Each earth seems to have been gradually deposited from water, and intimately mixed during its deposition.

The most remarkable lava of these mountains is globular, with a central nucleus, interspersed with brilliant particles which resemble mica, but are in reality of pitch-stone; and a pure pitch-stone lava is also found. Father Terzi mistook

\* See our XVIIth Vol. (New Arr.) p. 54, and Vol. XIX. p. 346.

this lava for glass; but, on a minute examination, it does not even merit the appellation of enamel. Some pieces of real glass occurred to the abbé in Terzi's collection; but, on proceeding to the spot from which they were taken, they appeared to have composed a part of the scorix of a furnace. In another place, some pumices, the most indisputable marks of ancient volcanos, appeared to have been carried from the shore, where the sea had brought them from volcanic islands; and these circumstances induce the abbé to give some directions for distinguishing those hills which are truly volcanic from others that only appear to have been so.

Some judicious 'reflections and corollaries' follow the description of the lavas. Our author concludes that these mountains, though some miles distant from the sea, were once immersed in it, forming small volcanic islands. The lavas, in their nature and component parts, resemble those of *Ætna*; and common fire makes them flow in glass or enamel. Basaltés, we have seen, may be formed both in the humid and dry way: in these mountains we have evidence of each process.

The nature of the gasses of volcanos has not yet been satisfactorily investigated. This subject the abbé has pursued with great ingenuity, though his experiments are not conclusive. He examined various volcanic products, which, on melting, expanded with great violence, and rose above the sides of the crucible. These, however, produced; on experiment, no gaseous fluid; and, pursuing the inquiry, he found great reason to conclude, that, when the gas occasioned the expansion in the crucible and the cells of lava, it was because the glass or other substances assumed a rarefied form, and became air. This we can readily admit to have been often the case; but we consider the experiments as indecisive, because they were made on substances which had already undergone the process; and the gasses, which they might have originally contained, were of course exhausted. We do not, however, offer this objection with very great confidence, since we know, from other experiments, that the bases of these lavas do not contain a very large proportion of air. When an explosion occurs, it is attributed to the concurrence of water, raised by the fire into vapour or air; and several facts are adduced in support of this opinion, which we many years ago offered in our journal. It is remarkable, that though water, covered by a burning body, thus expands with an incalculable force, yet, when poured on it, it gradually disappears without any explosion. We lately quoted from one of the Exeter essays some experiments of this kind made by Saussure\*; and

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XVIII. p. 420.

many similar observations occur in the present chapter. The abbé, however, feels a difficulty from the different results of the experiment of pouring the water on tin and lead, which the opinion, suggested in that essay, would have explained.

The last chapter of the third volume relates to the discovery of the muriatic acid in various lavas. It is united, not chemically combined, with them, and seems to be an addition subsequent to their fusion; for recent lavas contain no portion of it.

In the fourth volume, the writer examines at considerable length the heat and fluidity of lavas. He leans towards the idea of great fluidity; but, if in this he errs, the error is counterbalanced by his candour in the relation of facts. Various observations show that lavas are sometimes very fluid; this circumstance, however, does not always imply great heat, but a greater fusibility of the bodies. The extent of a course of lava is no proof of great fluidity; for, when the matter is not supplied from the mountain, so as to furnish a continued accession of heat, the lava soon ceases to flow. It is added, that the induration of the external crust, which prevents the inferior current from feeling the effect of the air, contributes to preserve the heat; but the air, being scorched by the preceding eruption, cannot have a very powerful influence. The bias of the abbé's opinion is more distinctly perceived in his answers to the opposite doctrine, which is patronised by Dolomieu and Kirwan. To his replies an answer is not difficult: but we forbear to engage farther in the question for two reasons. One is, that, from every view we can take of the subject, the effect of volcanic fires is liquefaction and not fusion; we mean that the heat is commonly sufficient to render the substances fluid, not to disengage their component parts, so as to admit new combinations. The second ground is, that, from some unknown reason, the fire of volcanos is not to be imitated in our furnaces. From a careful inquiry into the different facts, and an attentive comparison of various experiments, we cannot find that the heat of a volcano in general rises so high as that of a glass furnace. Something tends to make even the smaller heat of volcanos apparently more powerful than the greater fire of the forge: it does not appear to be sulphur acting as a flux, or, as Dolomieu supposes, the innate caloric of the substances themselves, or wholly the continuance of the heat, or (according to Faujas de St. Fond) the aqueous fluid itself. Yet with the duration of the heat and the water, it is most probably connected; and it will perhaps be found that the water which occasions the eruption, when changed into air, produces, as a compound menstruum, the liquidity mentioned, in comparatively low degrees of heat.

We have afterwards a general account of the Lipari islands. The most valuable commodity is the wine produced from their grapes, the process for which the abbé describes; but an article, which may perhaps be rendered of greater importance, is the cactus opuntia, the favourite food of the cochineal insect. This vegetable, also called the Indian fig, grows with great luxuriance; and there is little doubt that the insect, if conveyed to these islands, would equally thrive. From the observations of the inhabitants, swallows seem not to migrate; for the warm scirocco brings them forward, after they have disappeared both in Lipari and Stromboli. This subject the abbé promises to renew in a separate publication. We shall only add what appears to us to be the fact, after a long investigation. Swallows certainly migrate: but various circumstances may prevent the whole number from leaving the coast. That incipient torpor which leads the majority to migrate, induces those which remain to seek a warm retreat.

Of the circumstances and condition of the inhabitants of these islands, our traveller thus speaks:

‘It is incredible how contented these islanders are amid all their poverty. Ulysses, perhaps, cherished not a greater love for his Ithaca, than they bear to their Eolian rocks, which, wretched as they may appear, they would not exchange for the Fortunate Islands. Frequently have I entered their huts, which seem like the nests of birds hung to the cliffs. They are framed of pieces of lava ill joined together, equally destitute of ornament within and without, and scarcely admit a feeble uncertain light, like some gloomy caves. Sometimes I have been present at their wretched meals, set out in coarse dishes, or on the bare ground on which they sat, and consisting of black barley bread, and wild fruits, and, sometimes, by way of dainty, some salt-fish, and pure water to quench their thirst. Attending only to the first impression of the scene, I thought I beheld the perfect image of wretchedness and misery: but, on more mature consideration, I discovered in these rude huts, and in the midst of this hard fare, an enviable happiness, which, I doubt, is not to be found in the palaces of the great, or among the delicious viands of royal tables. A cheerfulness and perfect tranquillity shone in the countenances of these poor people, and evidently possessed their hearts. Their ruinous cottages, which must be viewed with pity and contempt by the rich and great, to them were dear; and the food, which the luxurious would have rejected as insipid or nauseous, to their palates had an exquisite flavour.’ Vol. iv. p. 147.

The observations on Scylla and Charybdis are valuable. Travellers have steered between these dangers, or surveyed them at a distance, without adding the slightest information to that which Homer gave above 2500 years ago. Scylla, in-

deed; remains unchanged. The roaring billows still give a hollow sound, like the barking of dogs; and this part is still dangerous, when the current sets from south to north, and a violent north wind blows at the same time. The Messinese pilots, however, boldly put to sea in these circumstances, and frequently rescue the endangered passengers. Charybdis is less formidable. To our author it appeared a spot where the waves rolled confusedly in eddies; and, on sounding (for he ventured to sail over it) the depth did not exceed 500 feet; but, at a little distance, it was nearly double. He adds, that

‘A great part of what has been written relative to Charybdis is very erroneous. We have seen how many authors, from Homer to the present time, have described it as a real whirlpool, or great gulph revolving in itself, within the circumference of which should any ship enter it is immediately drawn to the centre and swallowed up. When the current is dying away, or when there is no current, this description has no resemblance to truth—Charybdis is then perfectly innocent, as I have been fully convinced by my own observations; and even when it is agitated and dangerous, it still contains no incavation or gulph of the nature of a vortex, but merely a strong agitation and dashing of its waves, which produces those small whirlings of its waters, which are only accidental, and not to be feared. So far likewise is Charybdis from drawing to itself and swallowing vessels, that it rather repels them and throws them to a distance.’ Vol. iv. p. 186.

This is undoubtedly true; but we suspect that the case was once different. In this part, the bottom of the sea is thrown up in a conical mound. Similar cones are still raised in the craters of volcanos. If this be a submarine volcano—a supposition by no means improbable—the present cone may be formed in the spot where a deep crater formerly existed, which, in peculiar sets of the current, may have before this event produced a whirlpool.

The remainder of this volume contains some miscellaneous philosophical observations. One chapter relates to the phosphorescent medusæ of the strait of Messina. Medusæ are called sea-jellies, or sea-nettles, from their consistence, or from the pungency felt on touching them. They are singular as instances of a considerable bulk, connected with a very small proportion of solid or organic substance. Yet it is certain that they are living bodies, with the varied functions of animal nature. They resemble the umbrella of a mushroom, but have, instead of the central stalk of the latter, four long cylindrical bodies, probably tentacula. Their motions consist in the almost continual constriction and dilatation of the umbrella; and the seat of the oscillation is a thin muscular membrane surrounding the ring of the umbrella.

The phosphorescence of the medusa is connected with its oscillations; and, indeed, in every instance of animal phosphorescence it is the same, from the vermicular motion of the little creature which inhabits the imbricated scales of the oyster-shell, to the more splendid refulgence of the lampryis. Two phænomena we shall particularly notice.

‘ With respect to the medusæ which were kept out of the water, a fact presented itself to my observation, which, from its extraordinary nature, I should have supposed accidental, had not the same result followed on repeated trials. A medusa having been left two-and-twenty hours on a sheet of white paper had ceased to live; the greater part of it was even dissolved into a liquor, and every luminous trace was become extinct. A large glass full of well-water happening to stand on the table, I, without any particular intention, chanced to throw the medusa into it, which directly sank to the bottom, and remained there motionless; but, to my great surprise, immediately shone with so bright a light that I was able to read characters of a tolerable size. The water at the same time became very luminous, and on immersing my finger in it, it was plainly discernible. Thinking that the same would happen, and perhaps with more effect, if sea-water were used; I threw the well-water out of the glass, and filled it with sea-water. But no light was now visible. I substituted fresh water for salt, and a beautiful phosphorus again appeared.

‘ Analogous to this phenomenon, of which I am unable to assign the cause, was the following:

‘ Another medusa which was dead, and had not been luminous for some time, was lying, out of the water, in the window of my chamber during the night. A slight rain chanced to fall, and every drop which fell on the dead medusa was changed into a brilliant spangle, till in a short time the medusa was studded all over with such shining points. I could produce no such effect by sprinkling it with sea-water in imitation of rain.’ Vol. iv. p. 234.

‘ When the medusa is handled or rubbed in the water, the quality of phosphorescence passes into the latter; which it likewise does when the animal is left immersed in it. But this experiment succeeds much better in fresh than in salt water; as I have observed that, other circumstances being equal, the brilliancy of the former is nearly double that of the latter. We may, therefore, by means of these medusæ, create artificial phosphori.

‘ For this purpose I employed well-water, as being more suitable, and with it made several experiments deserving attention. In thirteen ounces of this water, contained in a crystal glass, I squeezed two large medusæ, which had just been taken out of the sea. The water became somewhat turbid, but at the same time so luminous, that it gave sufficient light to a whole room. After two-and-



twenty minutes it began to grow feeble, and at the end of an hour and a half was entirely extinguished. Agitation, however, then restored it, in the same manner as we have said it revived the phosphorence of the medusæ when it appeared to be extinct. If, therefore, the water in the glass was stirred with a stick, or even with the finger, the brightness re-appeared, but was always feebler in proportion to the time elapsed. I observed, likewise, that the greater the agitation of the water, the brighter was the phosphorescence, which, however, when the water was no longer agitated, had only a momentary duration, as we have before remarked of the medusæ.

‘ When the water can no longer be excited to phosphorescence by the motion of its parts, it may by the application of warmth. I made the experiments I have related, in a temperature of between 21 and 24 degrees of Reaumur’s thermometer (80° and 86° of Fahrenheit); and if in this temperature the water in the glasses, though strongly shaken, emitted no light, it became lucid when the thermometer rose to 30° (100° of Fahr.) and still more vivid in a higher temperature, provided it was not too high, for then it entirely ceased.

‘ I made this experiment with other liquors besides water, and found several, which I had imagined unsuitable for such a purpose, might be impregnated with the light of the medusa. Such, for example, was human urine, which, in the intensity and duration of its phosphorescence, was not inferior to fresh water. But the experiment succeeded better in no fluid than cow’s milk. A single medusa, of a moderate size, being pressed and shaken in twenty-seven ounces of this milk, rendered it so luminous that I could read the writing of a letter at three feet distance. The duration of this phosphorus was likewise greater than that of the water. After eleven hours from the time I first put the medusa into it, it still retained some light; and when that ceased, agitation restored it, as did warmth, when agitation alone became ineffectual.

‘ Repeating the experiment with the same milk, I poured it out of the glass upon the floor of the room, in order to observe the appearance it might produce. While in the air, it exhibited a kind of very white and shining cataract, and, when it reached the ground, formed a little lake of light, at first vivid, but which, in a few moments, grew feebler, and, in about five minutes, entirely disappeared.

‘ If the hand were immersed in the phosphorescent milk, and drawn out again, it appeared elegantly silvered over; but this colour soon vanished; though it might be made to return for a moment by rubbing or warming the hand. This light not only attached to the hand, but to cloths; as I perceived in a towel, one edge of which had touched the luminous milk. In this case, likewise, the re-appearance of the light might be obtained by rubbing or warming the cloths.

‘ While employed in these experiments, I observed that throwing the milk against any hard body would restore its phosphorescence when extinct. The same milk, which emitted no light on the strongest agitation within the vessel, when let fall upon the floor became luminous; and the more violent the blow, the brighter was the light. Thus, if by night this liquor was poured from a high window, while it was in the air it had no luminous appearance, but, as soon as it struck the ground, shone with a bright light; which, however, presently grew feeble, and disappeared.’ Vol. iv. P. 237.

These facts are new and highly important. The explanation is not easy. Water, it is known, is not phosphoric; and its phosphorescence must have arisen from the minute portions of the animal scattered through it. The light in the living creature proceeded from the muscular membrane of the periphery of the umbrella, and the larger tentacula; and we know that it was connected with the active motions of the animal. It was, therefore, with some surprise that we found our author attributing the light to a viscid fluid, covering the ring. It is, perhaps, no unreasonable supposition, that the light is communicated from the organic parts of the animal to this fluid, and, during its motion, is derived in part from each. It is at least certain, that, while the emission of light, during life, is unlimited, the luminosity of the liquor, after death, is only temporary. It must be added, that this viscid fluid is a peculiar one, not the fluid of which the animal chiefly consists: the latter is sea-water, or water less saline than that of the sea.

The account of the coral fishery in the strait of Messina is curious: but, for this, we refer the inquisitive reader to the work itself.

In the last chapter, the fishery of the sea-dog is the subject of remark. This kind of shark is often a fatal enemy to swimmers, and has been found to swallow an entire man; for, in addition to the extent of the jaws, the throat is flexible and elastic. A particular description of a large shark is annexed, which seems to be a different species from the *squalus maximus*. Some of the numerous teeth lie low, and are covered with a fungous flesh. These, in the opinion of the abbé, are not wholly useless, but are designed to supply the place of those which may be injured or broken. From the size of some of the fossil teeth of sharks, the bulk of the animal must have been immense; and the miracle of Jonah ceases to be incredible.

We have now, in three copious articles, examined these travels; and we do not think that our labour has been misapplied. This attention will prove our own opinion of the va-

lue of the work; but we cannot leave it without a more pointed commendation. We can truly say that we have not lately met with volumes in which entertainment the most interesting, and instruction the most correctly scientific, have been so intimately combined. The translation is free, and yet faithful. The plates are not equally deserving of praise; but this is not the fault of the English artist, who could only copy what was before him; and he seems to have excelled, rather than to have sunk below, the Italian engraver.

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*Commentaries on the Law of Scotland, respecting the Description and Punishment of Crimes. By David Hume, Esq. Advocate, Professor of the Law of Scotland, in the University of Edinburgh. 2 Vols. 4to. 2l. 8s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.*

IT seems a paradox in the science of legislation, that the transactions by which different species of property are affected in the commerce of mankind, should become the subjects of elaborate legal disquisition, and that a topic of such superior importance as criminal law should experience a neglect unfavourable to the advantages and the beauty of systematic arrangement. Before the appearance of the works of Hale, Hawkins, and Blackstone, the criminal jurisprudence of this country had long laboured under the defect of methodical illustration; and the student and practitioner were reduced to the necessity of gleaning a scientific acquaintance with the subject from the repulsive Gothicism of the older law-books, or the rambling quaintness of the learned commentator upon Lyttleton.

The union of Scotland and England did not absorb those peculiarities in the administration of justice which distinguished the former from the latter kingdom; and, from the flourishing growth of talents, and the active literary spirit long conspicuous among our Caledonian fellow-subjects, it might have been expected that no ground for a complaint of the very imperfect elucidation of the Scottish criminal law would have existed at a period so recent as the composition of the present work.

Referring, in his Introduction, to the English crown law, Mr. Hume bestows a liberal panegyric on its various excellencies, but denies its boasted comparative superiority, in many important particulars, over the Scottish system.

Among many instances that might be given, I shall mention but one, of this fancied excellence of the law of England being

in a great measure a delusion, which has sprung from the looking to only one rule in the criminal process, without attending to the others. What I allude to is the complaint which we often hear, of our want of the peremptory challenge of the jurors, and of that punctilious and critical precision respecting the terms of the indictment and record, which is observed in the English courts. But those who expatiate on this grievance, entirely forget, that, (except in case of treason, by provision of modern statutes), no prisoner in England sees his indictment, or knows what the charge against him is, till he stands arraigned on it in the face of court; and that he is till then in equal ignorance who the persons are that are summoned to his jury, and who the witnesses that are to be used against him. Whereas with us, he must have full information in all these important articles, fifteen days at least before his trial; and has thus far better opportunity than the prisoner in any trial before an English court, to discover and prepare any reasonable objections that may lie to the indictment, witnesses, or jurors, or any of them. He has too with us the farther advantage, in every instance, of counsel to address the jury, and conduct his defence; which no prisoner in England has upon the issue of guilty or not guilty, in any capital case, except in trials for treason. And here, with reference to the indulgence which is shown in these particulars to such who are under trial for that high crime, I cannot forbear to insert the observations of sir Michael Foster on that occasion. "The furnishing the prisoner with the names, professions, and places of abode of the witnesses and jury, so long before the trial, may serve many bad purposes, which are too obvious to be mentioned. One good purpose, and but one it may serve. It giveth the prisoner an opportunity of informing himself of the character of the witnesses and jury. But this single advantage will weigh very little, in the scale of justice or sound policy, against the many bad ends that may be answered by it. However, if it weigheth any thing in the scale of justice, the crown is entitled to the same opportunity of sifting the character of the prisoner's witnesses." Surely it ought to be a lesson to us, of the moderation and diffidence to be observed with respect to all opinions on subjects of this kind, when we find this able and excellent author,—an author too, who has distinguished himself as a popular lawyer, and strenuous advocate in the cause of freedom,—thus expressing himself rather in dispraise of these humane provisions; which to us, who are habituated to them, as the ordinary course of process, seem to be indispensable to a fair and equitable trial.

Another topic, on which also it is not uncommon to hear encomiums passed at our own expence, is the greater humanity of the English practice, which requires the unanimity of the twelve jurors in their verdict. But, (to pass over all inquiries concerning the substance of this rule;) if the jury must be unanimous in their

voice, they are however warranted to convict, and even in capital cases are in the use of doing so, upon the testimony, if positive and explicit, of a single witness: a sort of proof, how reputable soever the witness, which no Scots jury can lawfully pay regard to, in any the most inconsiderable case. Add to this, that the prisoner in Scotland has the same aid of court, as the prosecutor, for compelling his witnesses to appear. Likewise, every witness that is produced against the prisoner, has right to see his declaration cancelled before deposing on the trial; so as he may be at absolute freedom in giving his evidence upon oath. The witnesses too are examined out of the presence of each other, which obviates any risk of a combination against the prisoner; and after being examined and dismissed, no witness can again be called on, to explain what he has said, nor to supply omissions: things, (as I understand it), all or most of them quite foreign to the English form of process\*, where the opposite practices are established, and are even thought to be essential, (and possibly they are so as matters are managed with them), to the execution of criminal justice. Notice may also be taken of the jealousy which actuates our custom, of all intercourse between the judge and jury. In so much that the verdict, once delivered into court, cannot on any pretence be retracted, nor even amended or explained, but must be received and taken with all its imperfections, how glaring soever, on its head. An English jury, on the contrary, are conversed with, reinclosed, questioned and instructed by the court, without any manner of restraint. Vol. i, p. xliv.

We have extracted this comparative view on account of the sketch which is given of the proceedings in criminal cases in Scotland. But we are of opinion, that few of our readers will consider this system as calculated to produce the full effect of impartial justice. The inflexible rejection of the testimony of a single witness, and the refusal of permitting witnesses to explain, or add to, their evidence, must frequently operate against the punishment of guilt, and counteract the useful and solemn purposes of judicial investigation. The preclusion of all intercourse between the judge and the jury on the subject of the verdict may also appear absurd and improper to those who think that the practice, as it prevails with us, has no other tendency than that of rendering the determinations of a jury consistent with sense, or subservient to the suggestions of lenity; though others, recollecting the behaviour of lord

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\* The author mistakes in supposing that the examination of witnesses *out of the hearing of each other* is peculiar to the Scottish criminal process; the practice is not infrequent in the English courts, and it is considered as a matter of course at the desire of the accused, or of the conductors of a prosecution. Ray.

Mansfield on some occasions of this kind, may not be inclined to condemn the Scottish regulation.

Reserving, for a subsequent part of this *critique*, our sentiments on the large discretionary powers of the Scotch judges, we feel ourselves bound to admit that the allowance of full defence by counsel to prisoners in all cases, is a provision of which the adoption would add a wreath of candour and humanity to the just fame of our criminal jurisprudence. The prosecution of offenders *entirely* at the public expense, is also a measure so equitable and salutary, that we heartily wish for its universal prevalence in the administration of criminal law.

The multiplication of crimes and punishments is the sting that unhappily attends the progress of commercial opulence and luxurious refinement; and we are sorry to contrast the following summary of Scottish punishments, with the *shocking average* of capital and other penal inflictions in England.

‘ I am certain that I am within the truth, when I mention, that on an average of thirty years preceding the year 1797, the executions for all Scotland have not exceeded six in a year. For a period of fifteen years, preceding the 1st May 1782, the number of persons who suffered death at Edinburgh, (where by far the greater number of capital trials take place), amounted only to twenty-three; that is, in every two years only three persons suffered death. And as to the inferior punishments, I have it from good authority, that one quarter-sessions, for the single town of Manchester, have sent more felons to the plantations, than all the Scotch judges do for ordinary in a twelvemonth.’ Vol. i. p. 1.

To Englishmen this must be a very unpleasant comparison; and we hope that the increasing commerce and opulence of the northern division of the island will not swell the catalogue of the crimes of its inhabitants.

It appears that Mr. Hume has made a liberal use of the English publications on crown law; and we perceive no important instance in which he dissents from the legal constructions put on different offences by our judges. In treating of homicide, he takes notice of a distinction in the mode of punishment between the crime of murder and that of attempting to kill, which has in several cases been obliterated by the statute law of England.

‘ It is necessary to all conviction of homicide, that a person have been actually killed. In this I mean to say, that no attempt to kill will come under the description, or expose to the proper pains of homicide, how deliberate soever the purpose, or how cruel the means employed, and how little soever it be owing to remorse or want of resolution on the part of the assassin, that he has failed of success. Nay, though the attempt have in a great

measure succeeded, and the party have received a wound which brings him to the brink of the grave, and leaves him infirm for the remainder of his life, still the benignity of our practice will consider, that the man is not lost to society, and will allow the offender an opportunity to repent, and to make atonement for his crime.' Vol. i. p. 260.

We have strong doubts of the wisdom of the principle thus adopted by the Scottish law. If the punishment of death be considered as necessary on other occasions, it seems to be as applicable to the crime of the assassin who has only been prevented by accident from *completing* his work, as to any species of offence against property; nor do we see any satisfactory reason why the mutilator of the person of another, or the inflictor of a dangerous wound, should meet with less severe punishment than the fabricator of an illegal paper-security, or the villain who breaks open a house with *intent to steal*.

In the chapters concerning adultery, incest, and other offences, now punished in England by the feeble jurisdiction of ecclesiastical censure, we discern strong features of the ferocious bigotry which marked the triumph of presbytery in Scotland. It must be allowed that offences of this kind are very injurious to the peace of society; but we could wish that some salutary medium should take place between the rigid inefficacy and the lax cognisance with which they are noticed in the different countries.

The chapter which treats 'of treason' contains a short account of a very absurd part of the old criminal process in North-Britain; namely, 'trial for treason after death,' which (says our author)

'was attempted for the first time in 1540, in the case of Robert Lesly; and mainly upon the authority of the civil law, which, in the case at least of proper perduellion, or rising in arms, seems to have permitted this extraordinary sort of accusation. The novelty and injustice of such a proceeding, excited, however, surprise and discontent in the country. Therefore the king, "for stanching of sik murmur," and meaning (as he tells us) "on nae sorte to move, or doe any thing, bot that hee may justlie bee advised of the three estates," came to parliament and desired their opinion "quhiddir that he lies ane action to pursew sik summondes or not." In answer to which consultation the whole estates of parliament "all in ane voyce, but variance and discrepance," assented to this new pretension; and declared his majesty's right to insist in such actions "conform to the commoun law, gude equity and reason, notwithstanding there is nae special law, acte nor provision of the realme, made thereupon of before." Positive as this opinion was, it did not however prove satisfactory to the people at large; and it was thought proper thus far to comply with their desires, that the

prosecution should only lie within the space of five years after the traitor's death, and for such treason as had been notorious in his lifetime. This, which in the main was agreeable to the civil law, was ordered by a statute of 1542, which has never been printed. Yet on the 24th June 1609, sentence of forfeiture passed in parliament against Logan of Restalrig, for accession to the earl of Gowrie's conspiracy; of which in his lifetime Logan had never been suspected.

'The form of this extraordinary sort of process, was by citation of the traitor's heirs; not only as they might defend his memory, but as they were themselves interested to save their inheritance from confiscation. Moreover, as if to render the iniquity of the thing more palpable, the shocking indecency was sometimes used, of raising the bones of the deceased from the grave, and presenting them at the bar. This was done, both in Robert Lesly's case, and in that of Logan of Restalrig. Notice may also be taken of the proceedings in the case of Francis Moubay, in January 1603. This man being killed in his attempt to escape from the castle of Edinburgh; his dead body was brought to the bar, and there had doom pronounced over it, to be hanged and quartered, and the head and limbs to be stuck up on conspicuous places of the city.

'It does not appear, that either trial in absence or trial after death was ever attempted to be applied to the statutory treasons of murder under trust, theft in landed men, and the like. Every proceeding of this kind is now excluded by the communication of the English course of process; for which reason nothing farther shall be added on the subject.' Vol. ii. p. 458.

The odious species of legal revenge, mentioned in this extract, has had a sort of parallel in the treatment of the bodies of some heretics who died a natural death, and also of several persons who were concerned in the deposition and execution of Charles the First. The better sense and more polished manners of the present day are naturally shocked at the recollection of such impotent and indecorous prostitutions of the forms of justice.

From these Commentaries it may be collected, that the grounds on which the *malus animus*, which leads to criminality, is presumed by the law of Scotland, are, with scarcely any exception similar to the principles, which guide our English judges. The powers of the latter, however, are confined within those limits which, without impeding their salutary exertion, render them consistent with the most scrupulous spirit of constitutional freedom. The various offences which in Scotland are punished at the discretion of the judges, form an accumulation of juridical power, which tends to destroy the balance of civil liberty. Mr. Hume, alluding, in his chapter



of sedition, to some recent trials, applauds the vigour and the efficacy of such discretionary powers in preserving the public peace. We are not friendly to the turbulent spirit of revolutionary innovation; but, as other factions than those of a popular complexion may often exist, it is not difficult to believe that powers of a high and indefinite nature may, in some instances, be perverted to sinister purposes, in compliance with the infirmity of human passions.

By the advocates and solicitors of North-Britain this work will be found highly useful; and it will not be uninstrucive to those who practise or study the English law. But, while we admit that the author has employed much laudable attention on a very important branch of jurisprudence, we feel it our duty to remark, what our readers have perhaps anticipated from the extracts, that his style is not the most polished, and that his performance, in point of composition, is inferior to most of the modern publications on the subject of law.

*T. Lucretii Cari de Rerum Naturâ Libros sex longe emendatiores reddidit G. Wakefield, &c.* (Continued from p. 9.)

ON a former occasion, when we censured the practice of those commentators who overwhelm the text of a classic author with a multiplicity of notes, we complimented Mr. Wakefield for his moderation in that respect\*; but we are sorry to observe, that he has been too lavish of his annotations in the work which we are now surveying. We readily admit, however, that he has displayed a considerable share of acuteness and ability in the execution of a difficult task.

In entering upon the second book, we are not pleased with the arrangement of the fifth and sixth lines. The sentence would begin better with *Suave etiam*, in continuation of the *Suave mari magno*.

In the 28th verse, we find *citharæ* for *citharis*. *Rebeant* will then be a transitive verb, as *resonat* in the passage cited from Virgil; or *citharæ* may be taken for the dative case singular,

V. 32, 33.

*Anni*

*Tempora* conspargunt viridanteis floribus herbas.

Mr. Wakefield thinks that *auræ tempore*, that is, *auræ vernæ suo tempore*, would be a preferable reading; but we do not altogether agree with him.

77, 78. Inque brevi spatio mutantur secula animantium,  
Et, quasi cursores, vitæ lampada tradunt.

We wish that the editor had transcribed the passage of Plato, which Lucretius imitated. We take it from Lam-

\* See our review of his Virgil, Vol. XVII. p. 376.

binus, Γεννῶντες καὶ ἐκτρέφοντες παῖδας, καθάπερ λαμπάδα τὸν βίον παραδίδοντες ἀλλοις ἐξ ἄλλων.

84, 85. Our expofitor would read, from the varieties of the MSS.

‘ ——— nam, quom cūta, fæpe  
Obvia conflixere.’

110. Confociare etiam coitus potuere recepta,

‘ Pro librorum omnium lectione motus—Bentleius reponi juffit cætus; pro quâ voce fcribendum potius coitus exiftinavi.’

157. nec res remoratur. Some of the MSS. having *remora-uit*, Mr. Wakefield gives, from conjecture, *remoræ fit*.

187. From the traces of the MS. readings, he would read,

‘ Ne tibi dent, timeo, flammæ corpora fraudem,’

inftead of

‘ Ne tibi dent in co——.’

197. He has admitted *non*, the reading of a MS. for *nam*.

206. ——— cæli fublime volanteis.

The ufe of a neuter verb with a regimen refembling that of a verb tranfitive, is applauded on this occafion in high terms; and not only parallel paffages are introduced, but fome verfes are altered for the purpofe of illuftration.

214. *Hæc* and *illic* are inferted for *hinc* and *illinc*, ‘ ipfo poëtâ’ (fays the editor) ‘ id precibus importuniffimis flagitante.’

220. Tantum, quod *minumum mutatum* dicere poffis.

*Momen* appears for *minumum* in one manufcript; and Bentley propofes *nutare ut* for *mutatum*: but Mr. Wakefield prudently rejects thefe deviations from the eftablifhed reading.

317. ——— tondentes pabula *lætâ*.

He conjectures that the poet wrote *latè*, and refers to Virgil, *Æn.* iii. 538; but he does not censure *lætâ* as improper.

320. *Et fatiatei agnei ludunt, blandeque corufcant.*

Some manufcripts have *fatiat*, perhaps for *fatiatè*; and the laft word of the line is variously written: but we prefer *corufcant*.

343. Mr. Wakefield has, with reafon, adopted the conjecture of the London editors, who fubftituted *armenta* for *arbufa*, the reading of all the copies.

363. ——— *subitamque avortere curam.*

One copy has *summam*, which is inadmissible. The ordinary acceptance of *subitus* is less proper, in this place, than the *usus exquisitior*, as it is here termed by the editor; who explains *subitam curam* by 'id curæ quod eam subiit.' Various quotations are adduced for the illustration of the latter meaning; but we do not think that all the passages are strictly applicable.

380. *Diffimili inter se quædam volitare figurâ.*

We are pleased with the substitution of *quadam* for *quædam*; and Mr. Wakefield supports his introduction of the former word by a just statement of the import of the passage.

390. ——— *quam de quibus est liquor almus aquarum.*

There are different readings of this passage; but we doubt the expediency, at least the necessity, of altering *almus* to *albus*, though Mr. Wakefield strenuously urges that point.

428. ——— *angellis paullum prostantibus.*

Some editions have *angululis*: but the oldest manuscripts, supported by Arnobius, oppose the reception of that word.

After the 452d line, we find a verse obnoxious to the censure of most of the editors of Lucretius, who pronounce it inconsistent with the context, and supposititious. It is this—

*Namque papaveris haustus item est facilis quod aquarum.*

Our commentator plausibly defends it.

'Non equidem cum illis sentio, qui eum omnino illepidum et intempestivum judicant; sed tacitæ objectioni putem Lucretium hoc interposito ire obviam voluisse; quasi dixerat: "In superioribus affirmavi quidem, ea corpora, quibus nostri sensus diversæ solent affici, ex primordiis constare diversæ figuratis: mireris ergo fortasse, me lævorem atque rotunditatem principiis fluidorum omnium, gustu tantopere discrepantium, assignare posse: sed me facilitas, quæ omnia labuntur et devolvuntur, ad hoc cogit; adeo ut liquor papavereus, exempli gratiâ, cum solido quovis comparatus, necesse est ex lævibus æque sit et rotundis generaliter, ac simplex aqua; quamvis fortasse minus accurate per se specialiter lævigatis et rotundatis.'

464. *Sudor uti maris est.*—

Bentley recommends *udor*; but Mr. Wakefield properly rejects it.

467. — *nec tamen hæc retineri hamata necessum.*

The editor plumes himself upon his accurate explanation of *nec*, by referring it to *et non*; and, after dwelling on this point, he closes a very unnecessary note by *unfolding the genuine construction* of an obvious passage in one of the odes of Horace, which, he says, no person had before discovered, though every school-boy capable of reading five lines in that author must have understood it exactly in the same sense at the first glance.

497, 498. Ne quædam cogas inmani maxumitate  
Esse; supra quod jam docui non esse probare.

To *posse probare*, or *probari*, he prefers the reading of the MSS. examined by Pius.

501. Aurea, pavonum ridenti inbuta lepore,  
Secula, novo rerum superata colore, jacerent :  
Et contemptus odor myrrhæ mellisque sapor.

He has given in his text, *Pepla*—*Contemptus sudos smyrnæ*—*pepla* from Burman's conjecture; the other alterations from the traces of the old readings. In support of the *sudos smyrnæ*, he has aptly produced, from Euripides, *σμυρνης ιδρωτα*; but perhaps something might be said in behalf of the discarded *secla*.

533. *Magis* is adopted from MSS. in lieu of *minus*, which is the reading of most modern editions.

613. Per terrarum orbeis—

The editors who have inserted *orbem* for *orbeis* are accused, in strong terms, of presumption and ignorance.

629, &c. Heic armata manus, Curetas nomine Græcei  
Quos memorant Phrygios, inter se forte catenas  
Ludunt.

So the text appears in Havercamp's edition; but Mr. Wakefield has given, from conjecture, *forte catervis*.

658. He has restored the reading of the MSS. *dum verâ re tamen ipse*. Most of the editors had preferred the supposed emendation of Lambinus, *dum re non sit tamen apse*.

663, 664. Dissimili vivunt specie, retinente parentem  
Naturam.

So he has published from MSS. The common editions have *retinentque parentum*.

668. Ossa, cruor, venæ, color—

He has ventured to eject *calor*, the established word, from the text.

716. Vitaleis motus consentire, atque *animari*.

Some copies have *imitari*, which he alters to *initari*.

800, &c. Pluma columbarum quo pacto in sole videtur,  
Quæ sita cervicis circum collumque coronat.  
Namque aliâ fit, ptei claro sit rubra pyropo;  
Interdum quodam sensu fit, utei videatur  
Inter cœruleum virides miscere smaragdus.

Instead of *cæruleum*, Bentley conjectures *beryllum*; upon which Mr. Wakefield remarks; 'Præclare, ut omnia, vir perspicacissimus; et cui laudem integram loci, successu maximo meâ ex divinatione restituti, lubenter defero.' But he thinks the letters of the emendation rather too remote from the old reading, and the colours of the beryl and emerald too similar. He therefore reads, *curalium*, which he has accordingly admitted into his text. The whole note is too long for insertion; but we shall transcribe the latter part of it.

'His finem imponet locus Philonis Judæi luculentissimus.—Τον δ' αυχενά της περιστέρας εν ήλιακαις αυχαις ου κατενοήσας μυρίας χρωματων αλλαττοντα ιδεας; η ουχι φοινικουν, και κυανου, πυρωπον τε αυ και ανθρακοειδες, επι δε ωχρον και ερυθρον, (i. e. *viridem et rubrum*) και αλλα παντοδαπα ισχει χρωματα, ων ουδε τας κλησεις ραδιον απομνημονευσαι;—Ecce! post intervallum temporis, incidimus in Sereni Samonici locum, silentium etiam maxime pervicacibus imponere valentem; et vituperatores nostros deridendos potius facturum, quam derisores. Ille scriptor, qui circa annum 240 post Christum floruit, exemplaribus Lucretii haud paullo sincerioribus videtur usus; et ad hos ipsissimos versus, quos tractamus, manifestissime alludens, nostram emendationem extra controversiarum fines posuit:

'*Curalium* atque crocum corio connectito felis:  
*Curalium* vero si collonectere velles,  
Ne dubites illi *virides miscere smaragdus*.'

909, 910. At nequeant per se partes sentire, *neesse est*;  
Namque *alios* sensus membrorum *respuat* omnis.

Mr. Wakefield has restored this reading, which some editors had altered to *nec esse—aliûm—res petit*.

936. For *principio*, we find *principiûm* in this edition; and we by no means disapprove the change.

990, &c. Denique cœlesti fumus omnes femine oriundi;  
Omniibus ille idem pater est; ungue alma liquenteis

Humoris guttas mater quom Terra recepit,  
 Feta parit nitidas fruges, arbutaque læta,  
 Et genus humanum; parit omnia secla ferarum;—  
 —Quapropter merito maternum nomen adepta est.  
 Cedit item retro, de terrâ quod fuit ante,  
 In terram; sed quod missum est ex ætheris oris,  
 Id rursus cœli relatum templa receptant.  
 Nec sic interimit mors res, ut materia  
 Corpora conficiat, sed cœtum dissipat ollis:  
 Inde aliis aliud conjungit; et efficit, omnes  
 Res ita convertant formas, mutantque colores, &c.

Mr. Wakefield has adduced a similar passage from the Supplices of Euripides; but we are surprised that he should not have recollected a fragment quoted from the Chrypsippus of the same poet, by Sextus Empiricus and Philo.

Γαῖα μεγίστη, καὶ Δίος αἰθήρ,  
 Ὅ μιν ἀνθρώπων καὶ θεῶν γενέτωρ,  
 Ἡ δ' ὑγροβόλους σταγόνας νοτιάς  
 Παραδεξαμένη, τικτεῖ θνατούς,  
 Τικτεῖ δὲ βόραν, φύλα τε θήρων,  
 Ὅθεν οὐκ ἀδίκως

Μήτηρ πάντων νομιοῦνται.

Χωρεῖ δ' ὀπίσω, τὰ μὲν ἐκ γαίας  
 Φυτ' ἐς γαίαν, τὰ δ' ἀπ' αἰθέριου  
 Βλαστοῦντα γόνις εἰς οὐρανίον  
 Πολὺν ἤλθε παλιν· θήσκει δ' οὐδὲν  
 Τῶν γιγνομένων, διακρίνομενον δ'  
 Ἄλλο πρὸς ἄλλου  
 Μορφήν ἑτέραν ἀπεδείξεν.

In the 12th verse there is another reading, *μεταμειβομενον*; and, in the 14th, *ιδίαν*; but Lucretius seems to have followed a copy which had *ἐτέραν*.

1028, 1029. *Paullatim* is transferred from the latter to the former verse; and *principio* immediately precedes *cœli clarum prurumque colorem*. But the editors are too severely treated by their rival on this occasion.

1045. Quid sit ibei porro, quo prospicere usque *valet* mens,  
 Atque animi jactus liber *fit*, quo *velit* ipse.

Thus has Mr. Wakefield constituted the text of these verses. In one, *valet* is his own conjecture for *velit*; in the other, he has profited by the various readings.

1100. ——— tum fulmina mittat, et ædeis  
*Ipsæ* suas disturbet——

He has given this more elegant reading upon the authority of Lactantius. The editions have *sæpe*.

1172, 1173. Nec tenet, omnia paullatim tabescere, et ire  
*Ad scopulum, spatio ætatis defessa vetusto.*

*Ad scopulum* is the reading of all the editions, and most of the MSS. but the two Leyden MSS. give *ad copulum*, whence Havercamp conjectures that the poet wrote *Ad capulum*. Pleased with this idea, the present editor has introduced *capulum* into the place which *scopulum* had so long usurped.

(*To be continued.*)

*Lectures in Divinity, delivered in the University of Cambridge, by John Hey, D. D. as Norrisian Professor. 4 Vols. 8vo. 11. Boards.. Rivingtons. 1796—8.*

THE studies of the university of Cambridge have been supposed to be unfavourable to theology; but we do not think that the apprehension is well-founded; and many illustrious names might be mentioned as instances of the attention and success with which divinity is pursued at that seminary. It has also been supposed that this university is infected with heterodox opinions; and by the institution of the professorship, which occasioned this publication, the world may form some idea of the applicability of the charge. The lectures were attended by a very great concourse of students; they were heard with general approbation; the thirty-nine articles, which were the subjects of disquisition, were, with the explanations, eagerly examined; and such was the opinion of the orthodoxy of the professor, and of the utility of the lectures, that an attendance upon them was deemed by *some* bishops a requisite introduction to holy orders, and was to *all* a recommendation.

We entered upon our survey of this work with sentiments favourable to the orthodoxy of Dr. Hey; but a notice at the beginning of the second volume, and a consequent very considerable degree of attention to the points to which he there alludes, greatly diminished our prepossession in his behalf. We shall give the advertisement as it stands before the third book, in which the chief subjects discussed are veracity, falsehood, and subscription to the articles of our church.

‘The author thinks it necessary to declare, that the patronage of the syndics of the university press was founded on their confidence in him, and not on a previous perusal of his manuscript. This declaration seems requisite, lest the syndics should be considered as giving a sanction to some opinions advanced in the first thirteen chapters of the third book.’

The syndics were not the only persons by whom those chapters were disapproved; for we find that they gave an alarm to persons of great dignity in the church; but the professor speaks in such warm terms of his regard for sincerity, that we should do him an injustice if we did not state, in his own words, his feelings upon this subject.

\* If any one imagines that I lightly esteem the duty of veracity, or that I look upon it as any mark of an improved mind to be careless about it, he mistakes me exceedingly. Nothing is farther from my wishes, than to lay any foundation for subterfuge or evasive pretences\*: I should be sorry to have any man in the world thought a warmer friend to sincerity and simplicity, than myself. I honour and adore them; I abhor deceit; I never deceive any one; at least it is my study to avoid deceiving; I would not deceive a child, nor, when many other men would, a sick person. When I think of the evils which mankind bring on themselves by duplicity and artifice, by simulation and dissimulation, I feel greatly dejected; when I think of the happiness which they might procure by an universal sincerity, nay, which they might immediately enjoy, by a general openness, frankness, and a genuine effusion of their hearts and minds, I feel myself filled and elated with pleasure.—Let no one think so ill of me as to conceive me saying this through ostentation; it is a necessary declaration; made necessary first by the likelihood that the scope of my reasoning may be misapprehended; and next by the alarm which this third book has actually given to some persons of great learning and eminence; who judged of it from the printed heads of lectures †. Vol. ii. P. 12.

The declaration of the author does him honour; but, as we cannot, in mere compliment to his feelings, suppress our sentiments, we are compelled, though unwillingly, to add our apprehensions to those of the two bishops and the syndics. Though we are convinced that the lecturer would not wish to lead his hearers into the labyrinths of error, we must say that he has afforded some ground for the application of bishop

\* Bishop Law talks of leading the members of the church "into all the labyrinths of a loose and a perfidious casuistry." On Subscription, p. 22.

† When published in 1783;—bishop Porteus and bishop Hallifax in particular expressed themselves, in letters to me, as entertaining apprehensions concerning some parts of the heads relating to veracity. And I have been lately advised to omit some things, which had been reported from the lectures: no one can be more willing to retract any mistaken position than I am; I claimed the liberty of retracting at the opening of the lectures; but, if I have publicly delivered any thing, it seems best either to retract or publish it. All I say in this book about veracity, seems to me quite a plain series of arguments or observations: not being able to retract what I deem to be such, I think it best to submit them to the judgment of others.



Law's remark to himself; but we do not doubt that some of the syndics will endeavour to avert the evils which might arise, if these chapters should be considered as the established doctrines of the church. The author himself ought to have pointed out the particular opinions to which the syndics could not subscribe; for, as the work appears under their sanction, they may be accused of maintaining and recommending notions repugnant to morality.

As the lectures were very popular at Cambridge, they must have acquired their fame more by the matter, than by the manner in which they were delivered. Aware of his negligence in the latter respect, Dr. Hey offers an excuse which we cannot allow to be valid.

'Some parts of the work now presented to the public may seem to require an apology, as not being composed with that formality, which may be thought requisite. The fact is, these lectures were not written in order to be read; the writing was merely a preparation for speaking. To revise them now, and give them an appearance fit to meet the eye of a critical reader, would be a work of much time, and perhaps of little utility. Writings have often been rendered obscure by too laboured a correction, and by endeavours to reduce matter into the least possible compass. This apology, it is hoped, may suffice, if some expressions are found of rather a familiar sort, and if some remain in the form of queries.' Vol. i. p. i.

Sheltered under this apology, he pays very little attention to his style, despises selection of words, and is regardless of his periods, of method, of arrangement. He forgets that many allowances will be made for a speaker, which will be denied to a writer, and that a critical reader expects from an academical professor a more dignified mode of expression than is used in a conventicle. We might point out, as objects of emulation, a Blackstone and a Lowth, who did not think the time lost, which was employed in rendering their lectures worthy of being read by the critic and the scholar.

We will not extract, as specimens of Dr. Hey's manner, the vulgarisms and uncouth expressions which strike us throughout the work; but there is one word that very frequently occurs, the use of which, when connected with the opinions given in the exceptionable chapters, raises such suspicions in our mind, that we must suggest the necessity of attending to it, both to the readers of this work and to the syndics of the press. *Seem* is the word to which we refer. Every thing *seems* to our author; nothing *is real*. He cannot be convicted of an erroneous opinion; for it is always guarded with this word; and, to use his own language, we never *seem* ourselves to

know, what *seems* to be his opinion upon any subject, however serious he may *seem* to be. It is unnecessary to give particular instances of his multiplied use of this verb and its derivatives.

We shall now briefly consider how far the author's laxity of expression may affect the opinions and doctrines mentioned in the work. To a person not aware of this indecisive manner, the writer would seem to waver or to be indifferent on the doctrine of our Saviour's incarnation, when he says,

'There seem always to have been heresies about the person of Christ, because his incarnation is something above our comprehension.' Vol. i. p. 388.

Now this is mere habit in Dr. Hey; for he means what another would mean in saying, '*far beyond* our comprehension.' An indifferent reader would, from the following passage, suspect him to be a favourer of unlimited despotism, since it represents opposition to the ministry, after every allowance, as blameable.

'Opposition to the measures of the English ministry, in whom is lodged the executive power, when shewn in parliamentary debates, according to theory, must seem inconsistent with loyalty and allegiance; but our feeling, that it has incidentally been the means of preserving many rights of the subject, and occasioning much improvement, mitigates our aversion to it, and almost clears it of blame.' Vol. i. p. 395.

But a distant sentence furnishes what may be called an antidote.

'Philosophers should be accountable finally to the people, as ministers of state are to the main body of the citizens.' Vol. i. p. 435.

That the doctor is not a bigot, appears from his intimating that

'a man may, reasonably and lawfully, live under any one' [*religious establishment*], 'and conform to it, who is not against reforming it; and who allows, that it has imperfections: for one use of establishments is, to promote improvements, or reformations, with the least disturbance possible.' Vol. ii. p. 35.

But he is not so eager for reform, as to wish it to be hastily undertaken.

'Men of the world seem very unreasonable, in not submitting to act under religious establishments; they think themselves above it; all are quacks in divinity; men in active life will talk as re-

formers, lightly and frivolously; and they would not scruple to undertake the task of reforming, without judgment, knowledge, or any consistent plan; and without any probability of not falling into great errors. Would they not act more reasonably, if they conformed to establishments, and only mentioned their ideas of improvement to those, who were prudent and informed enough to judge of them maturely? only pressing them if they saw, that they were opposed more through indolence than reason.' Vol. ii. p. 36.

The observance of outward conformity, amidst a desire of reform, is certainly a *convenient* practice. Thus the same person may be a churchman in London, a kirkman in Edinburgh, a catholic at Rome, and a Mohammedan at Constantinople; he may prostrate himself before the grand lama of Thibet, and kneel under the sacred shower of the priest of the Hottentots. Where-ever we find religious establishments, we may conform—Oh rare doctrine!

The professor would wish the *words* of an oath or a statute to continue, even after the *injunctions* have become obsolete. This is strange absurdity!

'It was once heresy to assert the being of antipodes; suppose a person to have founded a college, when that notion prevailed, and to have required his fellows to abjure, detest, and abhor, as impious and heretical, the doctrine of antipodes; I say, that, when it came to be universally agreed, that any inhabitants of the earth might have antipodes, such requisition became obsolete, or was virtually abrogated: for, if the founder could have been consulted, he would undoubtedly have ordered it to be expunged. Yet the words of the statute ought for ever to continue.' Vol. ii. p. 58.

His loose casuistry is evident where he speaks of the ministers of Geneva, as swearing to doctrines which they do not intend to observe or teach.

'A minister of the church of Geneva is now clear of the crime of prevarication, though there is so strong an appearance of it in the manner of assenting. I do not say, that at first every minister there was innocent; new senses have generally their origin in some degree of falsehood; but, when any man comes to be perfectly understood, he cannot deceive.' Vol. ii. p. 68.

Thus the first Genevese minister who took the oath was a liar; the second was so in a less degree; and the sagacious mathematicians of Cambridge will perhaps inform us, how many years must elapse before the lie vanishes. Upon this ground, there is no necessity of altering the articles of any church; but our author amuses us with a conjecture respecting those of our own church.

\* I conjecture, that, if it were entrusted to me to form a new set of articles, in order to separate the church of England from all those, which are incapable of carrying on the purposes of religious society with it, I should myself simplify some parts of our present confession; but whether that would be a real improvement, is another question. And that I should do so, can only be matter of conjecture, till I fairly discuss the question in my own mind.—So long as our present articles continue, I must honour them highly, looking back to the times when they were made, whatever might be spared of them in the present times, could men be unanimous about them.' Vol. ii. p. 202.

From this passage we may judge of his hesitation of character, as he must have paid great attention to the subject for many years, and yet is wholly undetermined.

Whether our readers will entertain the same opinion of Dr. Hey, which he professes to hold of himself, we leave to their decision. He says,

‘ It has seldom happened to me to retract an opinion; which I impute to reasoning with simplicity, and endeavouring not to deceive myself, in order to defend any received or established doctrine.’ Vol. ii. p. 213.

The lecturer gives his assent to the Athanasian creed in a very cold manner. He first observes,

‘ I will submit to the judgment of the candid, whether every sect should not produce a creed, in order to entitle it to toleration? and (leaving the two shorter creeds, as being established) whether something thrown into the Athanasian creed, about the nature of unintelligible doctrines, and of verbal arguments made out of them, might not give satisfaction to many minds?—and lastly, lest the damnatory clauses should still occasion difficulty, whether it would not be better to have the threats in words of scripture, than in words of human composition? whether if Mark xvi. 16, was pronounced, or sung, at the opening and conclusion, instead of the present application of it, and also between the rehearsal of the doctrine of the Trinity and that of the incarnation, in the manner of the Gloria Patri; and instead of “the catholic faith is this,” some other expression was used, such as “the faith we hold is this;” the creed would not be more generally satisfactory, and its solemnity be at least equally great?—If Mark xvi. 16. appeared, after all, too striking and alarming, perhaps that expression so often repeated in scripture, might sometimes supply its place; “He that hath ears to hear, let him hear.” Vol. iii. p. 117.

He then adds,

† I must confess, that, if these passages of scripture were in-

roduced, I should give my suffrage for the continuance of the creed, in all its parts. And I do not decline assenting to it in its present form.' Vol. iii. p. 117.

In the enumeration of writers upon different subjects—an important part of a lecture—we find frequent instances of carelessness. Speaking of the Moravian doctrine, our author says,

'I have no authentic account of the Moravian notion concerning the Trinity, but, from what I have seen of their worship, and heard, when attending their meetings, of their sermons and hymns, I should conclude, that they take but little notice of the Father of Jesus Christ.' Vol. ii. p. 242.

We could not have conceived that the Norrissian professor would have been unacquainted with La-Trobe's Doctrine of the *Unitas Fratrum*; a work which gives a particular account of the Moravian opinion on this point. The writers on the articles are strangely flurried over; and this note is added to the account.

'I have seen other writings on the articles mentioned in the catalogues of booksellers, but I have neglected, I perceive, to enter them here.' Vol. ii. p. 211,

*(To be continued.)*

*Naucratia; or Naval Dominion. A Poem. By Henry James Pye. 4to. 5s. sewed. Nicol. 1798.*

'YE scenes of nature, by the poet's tongue  
In every age, and every climate sung,  
Mountains, whose sides eternal forests shade,  
Vales, in the flowery robe of spring array'd,  
Seats, ever bright in warm description's lay,  
Far, far from you the venturous Muses stray!  
Sublimier objects, and terrific views,  
O'er the rough surge their daring flight pursues;  
Far from their long lov'd Naiads while they rove,  
Far from the Dryads of each haunted grove;  
Ye sea-green guardians of old Ocean's reign,  
(Who vex with storms, or soothe his wide domain,)  
Bid each rude wave in placid silence sleep,  
And gently hail these strangers to the deep. P. 5.

Such is the commencement of the poem. The history of navigation is not a favourable subject for poetry: yet a work upon naval dominion would, if well executed, be popular in

England; and by whom could it be undertaken with such peculiar propriety as by the laureat?

In the brief account of the deluge, the line—

‘ A world of waves, unbounded by a shore,’

reminded us of Ovid’s celebrated pleonasm. Mr. Pye does not believe, with Fuller, that ‘ all vessels on the water are descended from the loyns (or rather ribs) of Noah’s ark.’ He asserts, with more probability, that

‘ His near descendants, long a pastoral train,  
Nor spread the sail, nor plough’d the bordering main;’

and he represents the savage of those times as precluded by a brook from enjoying the fruits of the opposite bank, and hopeless of ever attaining the desired object. A rifted oak, thrown by the winds across the brook, first serves him as a bridge, and, when the torrent sweeps it away, suggests to him the idea of a raft. Practice and chance improve the rude navigation.

The voyages of the Phœnicians, the Argonautic expedition, and the Trojan war, are too slightly sketched; and we do not think that enough is said of the memorable fight of Salamis; nor does the author dwell long on the intermediate ages. Early in the second part, we meet with a description of a ship of war.

‘ See yon vast fabric o’er the stormy tide

In warlike pomp majestically ride !

Her roomy decks, throng’d by the young and brave,

Look down defiance on the threatening wave ;

Her towering masts ascend in giddy height,

Whose lessening summits mock the aching sight ;

Aloft, where Britain’s mingled crosses fly,

The holy labarum of liberty.

Her swelling sails, wide spread in ample sweep,

Loom a vast cattle floating on the deep ;

Dread the long batteries on her side appear,

Denouncing slaughter from their triple tier.

Secure in giant strength, her frame defies

Alike the warring waves, and angry skies.’ P. 26.

This description is different from that of old Fuller, where he asks, ‘ who durst be so bold with a few crooked boards nailed together, a stick standing upright, and a rag tied to it, to adventure into the ocean ?’

After tracing the general history of navigation, Mr. Pye proceeds to the naval annals of England. He records the defeat of the Spanish armada, and celebrates the admirals who

have defended and honoured their country. He affects to foresee a serious injury to the maritime strength of Great-Britain from the increase of canals. We quote the passage in which he expresses this apprehension (which, we hope, will prove merely visionary), as one of the most animated in the poem.

‘ Ne’er from the lap of luxury and ease  
 Shall spring the hardy warrior of the seas.—  
 A toilsome youth the mariner must form,  
 Nurs’d on the wave, and cradled in the storm.  
 This school thy coasts supply—the unwrought ore  
 Wasted from port to port around thy shore,  
 The northern mines, that fable stores unfold  
 To chase from blazing hearths frore winter’s cold ;—  
 These nurseries have train’d the daring crew  
 Through storms and war thy glory to pursue ;  
 These have thy leaders train’d, and naval fame  
 Reads in their rolls her Cook’s immortal name.  
 O ne’er may Commerce with misdeeming zeal  
 Weaken this source, her own, her country’s weak,  
 And the canal, by tortur’d streams supplied,  
 Along our coasts with baleful labour guide,  
 Then boast, if war insults our chalky shores,  
 It yields safe conduct to our arms and stores.—  
 Perish such safety !—ne’er may commerce know  
 Safe conduct here but from a vanquish’d foe.—  
 Where mountain forests spread their deep’ning shade,  
 Where metals lurk beneath the midland glade,  
 Where mingled art and industry combine,  
 Weave the rich web, the liquid ore refine,  
 Let the canal, scoop’d out with plastic care,  
 To distant marts the useful produce bear ;  
 But never may its stagnate waters lave  
 The sandy borders of the briny wave,  
 Or the rude bargeman’s vile inglorious race  
 The generous hero of the sea replace.

‘ O Millbrook ! shall my devious feet no more  
 Pace the smooth margin of thy pebbly shore ?  
 No more my eyes, when even the zephyrs sleep,  
 View the broad mirror of thy glassy deep,  
 Where the reflected spire and bordering shade  
 Inverted shine, by softer tint portray’d ;  
 Or by the dancing moon-beam’s silvery gleam  
 See the bright ripple of the curling stream,  
 While round the passing bark as eddies play,  
 A track of trembling radiance marks her way ;  
 Or as the surge with ineffectual roar  
 Spends its rude force on the surrounding shore,

Behold its harmless vengeance idly beat  
 With vain and baffled fury at my feet?—  
 No more along the channel's azure space  
 My sight the ship's expanding sail shall trace,  
 Through whose white folds—clad by the leafy year,  
 On the green uplands future fleets appear!—  
 Now through the stagnate pool, by banks confin'd,  
 Rolls the slow barge, dragg'd by the inglorious hind.—  
 By vengeance arm'd, ye powers of ocean rise!  
 And when full orb'd in equinoctial skies  
 The pale moon hangs, and with malignant pride  
 Rouses the driving storm, and swells the tide,  
 Lift high the trident, and with giant blow  
 Lay of vain man the pigmy labours low,  
 Chastize the weak presumption that would chain  
 The briny surge, and subjugate the main.' P. 68.

He concludes with the spirit of an Englishman.

' Never shall sink Britannia's naval fire  
 While rous'd to glory by her Thomson's lyre.—  
 Responsive to his lay, her genius long  
 In act shall realize the raptur'd song  
 His fancy heard—what time the angelic train  
 Hail'd the blest'd isle emerging from the main,  
 With seraph hand their golden viols strung,  
 And to his ear the hymn prophetic sung.—  
 " Long as her native oak's strong limbs defy  
 The furious blasts that rend her stormy sky,  
 Long as her rocky shores the ocean laves,  
 Shall Freedom and Britannia rule the waves." P. 76.

From the outline which we have given of the writer's plan, it will not appear to be one that is capable of rendering a heavy subject interesting; nor can much be said in praise of the execution. The versification is sufficiently solemn, without swelling into bombast, and sufficiently harmonious without cloying the ear by perpetual sweetness; but life and vigour are rarely found: there is little that can fix or rouse the attention; and it is not a poem that will be read with extraordinary pleasure. The epithets are in general trite; and there is little originality either of thought or expression. One line, however, must not pass without due praise: the flag of England is called

' The holy labarum of liberty;'

a phrase altogether new and striking: the poet laureat undoubtedly thinks it just also; but, alas! the flag of England is not considered as the ensign of liberty in the east or in the west, or on the shores of Africa.



*Genealogical Tables of the Sovereigns of the World, from the earliest to the present Period; exhibiting in each Table their immediate Successors, collateral Branches, and the Duration of their respective Reigns; so constructed as to form a Series of Chronology; and including the Genealogy of many other Personages and Families distinguished in sacred and profane History; particularly all the Nobility of these Kingdoms descended from Princes. By the Rev. William Betham, of Stonham Aspoll, Suffolk. Folio. 3l. 3s. Boards, common Paper; 4l. 14s. 6d. second Paper; 6l. 6s. best Paper. Robinsons.*

IF any thing could check the folly of human nature, in claiming pre-eminence from a long train of ancestors, the publication of a work like the present would repress the rising emotions of pride in every reflecting mind. From a barren list of names we learn who were the fathers or mothers, or more distant progenitors, of the select few, who are able to trace what is called their descent from antiquity. But, alas! how far back does this antiquity go? We examine the tables, and find that few families attain the age of a thousand years, when the head is discovered to be some base plunderer or some ferocious barbarian. Between this wretch and the favoured son of fortune, how many wander from the father's side to the mother's side, and back again, till scarce a drop of that blood, which is supposed to give high pretensions to the name, flows in the veins of its possessor. We need not suggest to our readers how much these pretensions would be invalidated, if, like Gulliver, we could call up the ancestors 'of the sovereigns of the world,' and compare them with the lists in these tables.

The English are unfortunate (or perhaps fortunate), that, in the genealogical contest, they must give way to many other nations. We can bring no families to vie with those of the true Germans, with the houses of Saxe-Lauenburg, Eisenach, Weimar, Jena, Gotha, Altenburg, &c. We can show no families equally free from the contaminating mixture of ignoble blood. We, indeed, surpass the Germans in the arts and accommodations of life; but, in comparison with them, we suffer a great degradation; for, among us, the blood of the noble is daily mixed with that of the ignoble.

Our author might have made this subject still more familiar to his countrymen, by continuing down, as far as possible, the line of descent from our sovereigns. Edward the Third affords good materials for that purpose. At Cambridge a custom prevails, that a person, tracing his descent from the royal blood, and having some other qualifications, may at the end of two years claim the degree of master of arts, without

examinations or exercises. The descendants of Edward the Third are frequently on the list of claimants; and, when the silk gown is put over the young man's shoulders, he feels, with lively emotions, the royal blood flowing through his veins. Thus honoured, he quits the senate-house; and the first man whom he meets is, perhaps, a person equally or more nearly related to Edward, with a burthen on his shoulders. The royal blood gives pride and a silk gown to the one; but, in the veins of the other, it meets with no respect, because the descendant is a tradesman or mechanic. Yet surely the relatives should be taught to greet each other; and, by comparing their feelings, they may learn to make a proper estimate of their birth. The descendants of Edward the Third are to be seen furnishing rooms at Cambridge, selling different goods at Stirbich fair, and occupying other situations of an inferior kind; and, if the course should be accurately traced, the blood of Edward might be discovered in many thousands of the subjects of his present majesty.

But the advantage to be derived from lowering the pride of family, may, to some of our readers, appear problematical; while the utility of genealogical tables in questions of history will be universally allowed. We therefore with that some notes had accompanied this work, pointing out the suspicious places in a line of succession.

Among the particulars which strike us, we observe that Mr. Betham has placed St. Peter at the head of the popes: but, though that post might be assigned to him with propriety by a catholic, a protestant should intimate that the place was given to him with a view only of making the tables correspond with the usual lists of those pontiffs. Harding, a royal Dane, and Manfred, a chieftain of the same nation, are mentioned as the heads of the Berkeleys and the Percies; but it is of no consequence to the two families whether such persons ever existed. The table of the kings of the Celtes served to amuse us. Man stands at the head, and in the third descent is Mnemosyne, who had by Jupiter the nine Muses, whose names are a clear proof of the small degree of relation in which they stood to the Celtic community. The tables, however, are given in general from the best authorities. The German tables are most correct; but some parts of them are useless. Many of the others will be found useful to the readers of history. The house of Cromwell is particularly well given; and the numerous posterity of that extraordinary man will doubtless be careful to preserve, by a continuation of the table, the memory of this descent.

Upon the whole, the author of this work deserves praise for his patience and perseverance; and every considerable li-

300 *Transactions of the College of Physicians of Philadelphia.*  
brary will be deemed imperfect, if the descendants of the  
sovereigns of the world do not grace one of its shelves with  
their names and titles.

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*Transactions of the College of Physicians, of Philadelphia.*  
*Vol. I.—Part I. 8vo, 4s. Boards. Dilly.*

FOR what cause or reason, a volume, part of which has long been published, has not been completed, we do not know. We have never heard of its continuation; and, when we consider the utility of such a collection, and the vast field of inquiry which lies open to the members of the society, regret is mingled with our surprise. This part of the volume we must now review, as it will be useless to delay our account in the hope of a sequel; and it is necessary to take up this collection before some others of our own country, as, in the latter, extracts have been made from it.

The act of incorporation, and the institutes of the college, are merely of local importance. The discourse of Dr. Rush, pointing out the objects to be pursued by the members, and the great expectations to be formed from their united exertions, though it deserves our commendations, must not detain us, as the object of the address is relative only. Tables of diseases, from 1786 to 1792, taken from the registers of the infirmary, follow. The result is highly creditable to the skill of the faculty; for, of 1198 persons who were admitted, 920 are reported to have been cured, 96 were relieved, and only 62 died; the rest were in a progress of cure.

The first article is a case of curvature of spine, combined with, probably preceded by, paralysis. The cure, from the account, had greatly advanced, and probably may have been completed by frequent caustics and setons.

Dr. Leib relates a case of hydrocephalus internus, cured by mercury internally used, which seemed only efficacious, when accumulated so as to affect the gums. But the disease was occasioned by a blow, and therefore differed from the true idiopathic hydrocephalus.

Dr. Rush describes a case of locked jaw, cured by wine and mercury. It originated from a fracture of part of the jaw-bone, in drawing a tooth; but the effects of cold were combined. The patient drank in twenty-four hours five quarts of wine. Costiveness was evidently a symptom of the disease; for no opium was exhibited.

Dr. Capell, in dissecting rats, found, in the livers of those which were very fat, tubercles containing *tænia*. The envelope of the matrix was thinner, in proportion to the size of the worm; and it was probable that it would burst and dis-

charge the latter into the cavity of the abdomen; but the event was not ascertained.

Dr. Clarkson communicates an account of a case of tetanus, in which, after the most active efforts with every medicine which had been recommended, he failed, though the wound (for it was the consequence of a wound from a rusty nail) was also properly attended to.

Mr. Willday, being tortured by gravel in the kidneys, bathed his loins every morning with cold water, and, immediately afterwards, used great exercise. He found himself considerably relieved.

Dr. Leib, in his second case of hydrocephalus, was not so successful with mercury as he had been in the first: indeed, it was not given regularly. Water was found on dissection; and he contends that each was a true hydrocephalus; but this also was the effect of a violent blow, and therefore was not idiopathic.

The state of the barometer, for the year 1789, is subjoined. The highest point was in January, when the wind was at N. W. the mercury was at 30.5. and continued nearly so for several days. The lowest point was also in January, during a snow storm, and is said to have been 27.7; but this is perhaps an error of the press for 29.7; for in no other instance did the barometer sink to 28°. During the summer months, it was remarkably steady at thirty inches.

A 'singular case of ischuria,' described by Dr. Senter, follows. It seemed to arise from a paralysis of the bladder; and the urine was sometimes discharged by vomiting, sometimes by the navel, and at last *per anum*. The most remarkable circumstance is, that, at one period, while the urine usually contained gravel, that which was brought up by the mouth contained also similar gravel. This is wholly inconsistent with lymphatic absorption; and we are not willing to allow that there is any other communication between the stomach and the bladder. As there are several improbabilities in this case, we suspect that Dr. Senter was, in some circumstances, deceived. Many observations on ischuria are added, where the urine has been discharged by a pyelitis. The subject of these remarks died; and, on dissection, no morbid appearance, connected with the symptoms, could be observed.

Two cases of retroverted uterus are described by Dr. Senter, and the influenza of 1789 by Dr. Rush, who has also related the case of an affection of the head, supposed to be hydropic, which began with dyspepsia, and was cured by mercury.

From the state of the barometer in 1790, we find that the range was from 29.5 to 30.5. The thermometer, in 1791, was from 9 to 95!

A case of inverted uterus is described by Dr. Duffield, which terminated favourably, and was in no other respect uncommon. In an instance mentioned by Dr. Say, the ruptured ligament united, and a slight motion of the joint remained.

Mr. Stocket has stated a case in which the head-ache was relieved by the discharge of a worm from the nostrils, supposed to have been snuffed up from a rose; and Dr. Rush has given an account of a new bitter, prepared from the bark of the root of the *liliodendron tulipifera*.

A case of violent confluent small-pox is communicated also by Dr. Rush. The patient copiously made use of bark, fermented liquors, and animal food. This author recommends calomel in small doses to attenuate the salivary discharge, and thus lessen the secondary fever.

Dr. Hall removed an obstruction in the biliary duct, by electric shocks through the body; and Dr. Tallman describes a case, in which the affusion of cold water cured a tetanus. Dr. Jones's treatment of anthrax affords no new information, though the case was fortunate. In Dr. Leib's hands, alum was successful in dysentery. It has been so under the conduct of many other physicians; but, in this case, its efficacy is rendered doubtful, by the union of large doses of opium with it.

Dr. Moses Bartram communicates some useful practical remarks. Dr. Senter and Dr. Currie disapprove corrosive applications, and particularly that of the corrosive sublimate, in cancers.

A fatal case of hydrophobia, and one of hydrocephalus internus, conclude the volume.

*Edmund Oliver. By Charles Lloyd. 2 Vols. 12mo. 8s. Boards. Lee and Hurst. 1798.*

THIS is no common tale. It was written, Mr. Lloyd informs us, with the design of counteracting that generalising spirit which seems so much to have insinuated itself among modern philosophers. This spirit he attacks with ardour, and we think with success. The story is indeed the vehicle of his own opinions.

In *Edmund Oliver* he has attempted to describe a young man 'of excessive sensibility and impetuous desires, tamed down by disappointment.' The book opens with his return to London after a complete estrangement from his family: the subsequent events, with the feelings occasioned by them, are detailed in letters. He meets with Gertrude, the woman whom he almost idolises; but his long absence and neglect had weakened her affection for him, which she has therefore

transferred to another. His letters now grow more impassioned as he becomes acquainted with this circumstance; they are written in a style perhaps only equaled by the flowing fullness of Rousseau.

In the character of Maurice, the author has expressed his own sentiments. This friend attempts to rescue Edmund from the delirium of passion.

'Love, my friend,' (he says) 'is not a propensity to be trifled with. It is the most encroaching, and certainly the most seductive inclination of our souls. But, consider for a moment, is the state of mind in which a man finds himself when engrossed by a violent attachment, one that fits him for performing the offices and duties of life. Human existence to the million is not made up of rapturous agitations, and debilitating day-dreams!—No; the dull realities of life, hard perplexities, ruffling vexations, and trials requiring fortitude and persevering patience to overcome them, fall to the lot of most men.

'Ask the poverty-stricken mother of a young and craving family, what she knows of these transports?—She will understand you not: or if she do, she will turn her head and weep! Ask the virtuous young man, who devotes himself to the maintenance of aged parents, and weds himself to the fate of an overgrown, because neglected family, what he knows of love, and he will return the question with a stifled groan! Ask the philosopher, the patriot, the wise man that speculates, and the good man that exerts himself for the well-being of fellow natures, what they have to do with love, and they will look down upon you as the very insect whom they tread not upon because it has life, and is one of God's creatures, but of its use they have no certain knowledge.' Vol. i. p. 91.

These arguments, as may be supposed, produce no effect on one whose disappointed sensibilities have worked him up almost to phrensy.

'Talk not' (Edmund says) 'to one distracted of the omnipotence of reason! Mock not a madman with the idle vapourings of philosophy! Your words are unmeaning as idiocy—impotent as the inarticulate air! Every atom of the objects that surround me; every cloud that floats over my head; every sound that my ears drink in; every shaping of existence; even the most characterless toys of life are infected by, and receive importance from my passion! I glue myself to the chair on which she sat; I am lost in moulding her gestures; in recalling the evanescent graces of her figure to my mind! I tread with rapture the very spot which her feet have sanctified. I recall with ecstasy her excruciating farewell tones! I am not myself.—My existence is not my own!—It is her's.—I bask and live in the emanations of her spirit!—This, and more than

this she seems to me when I am separated from her; when she is present, the reality is not equal to the picturings of my imagination. There is a somewhat wanting; but I have not discovered what it is. Her manner intimidates and represses me. She is an object retiring from my grasp; yet my passion for her seems hourly to encrease! How is this, Charles? My spirit is more than ever possessed, yet the reality, the source of my delirium, withinks, is on the wane! All is strange—perplexing—incoherent! My soul is phrensyed!—every pulse beats with agony—every pore aches with sensation! Yet when I examine myself, no adequate object arises! I fall back as in a dream: I shudder at my own weakness; I totter like an unsupported thing; and sink to the darkness of unutterable horror!

‘Oh God, Charles, all is over! She is gone, gone for ever! I am enduring the torments of hell! Every particle of my frame has a separate existence, and endures an infinite anguish!’

‘My brother has just returned from his morning’s business; and has heard from persons likely to be acquainted with the circumstance, that in a few weeks Gertrude is to be married to this D’Oyley.

‘No matter! I have sent for wine. I have thrown myself on the couch where she sat; and for this day at least she is mine. My brother is gone. Yes, Charles, not Omnipotence itself could tear her from me now. My existence and her’s must cease together!

‘I will yield myself to the delirium of this moment’s impulse! By the aid of large draughts of wine, and the very objects being present in connection with which I formerly saw her, I can bring her (not an unreal phantom) before me, and mould it to my purpose! I will interrogate her with the agony of an undone soul! I will look her into madness! and we will embrace with unutterable groans!

‘Oh Charles!—what am I doing? Every object swims before me! My brain, my brain is as though it were splitting from its very centre! My ideas are intense even to phrensy; and the bodiless creations of my fancy are before me with a fearful, and most actual presence!’ Vol. i. p. 114.

In this disordered state of mind, Oliver forsakes his friends; and enters into the army. Maurice comes to London in quest of him: his search is long ineffectual; but he becomes the protector of Gertrude, now seduced and left friendless.

It is in the characters of Gertrude and her seducer that Mr. Lloyd has exemplified the dangerous effects of the new philosophy; and dangerous indeed would it be, if these effects were to be attributed solely to it! We need not go to the school of Mr. Godwin to account for the villany of a prodigal, who seduces a young woman after he has married an old lady for

her money. Other causes may be found for the fall of the ardent and empasioned Gertrude than her generalising philosophy. Mr. Lloyd has not done justice to the principles that he opposes. Gertrude is subdued by her misfortunes, and, on the birth of her child, swallows poison. This is not consistent with her opinions or with her character. She might have been as conveniently removed by a natural death, if the writer had not thought it necessary to conclude her follies and faults by suicide, that one additional evil might be attributed to her system. We are not the advocates of this system. With Mr. Lloyd, we consider the virtues of domestic life as most conducive to human happiness, because best adapted to human nature. In perusing the letters that elucidate this principle, we are delighted with the strength of intellect, and the rapid and powerful eloquence which they display; but we were not pleased to find the author exaggerating the pernicious tendency of a system, which he would have combated more successfully if he had treated it with more justice.

The hero of the tale is at length discovered by his friend. His impetuous feelings, already weakened by physical suffering, yield to the arguments of reason and religion; and he finally unites himself to a woman of those mild virtues, which are best calculated to perpetuate affection. The letter addressed to her is one of those in which Mr. Lloyd has laid open the most retired feelings of the human heart. An extract from it will please every reader of taste.

‘ I have looked around me.—I have sought with an ungratified spirit, till your name flashed on my restless mind. To be sincere, Edith, I offer you my heart—I offer you the whole of my present self—the whole that passion, disappointments, and severe calamity have not injured.—It is my better part, I trust, which remains, and it would fly a willing sacrifice to your affection, as a shelter from the vexations and rustling business of a wearying world.

‘ When I thus address you, I do not pretend to act from the sudden sympathies of a romantic passion. You know the series of my past feelings.—I could not deceive you were I even to assume the ardour of a first love.—No, Edith, I now want a companion for my solitary moments, a second self, when I would exclude me from the rest of mankind.—There are many hours upon which we cannot calculate, when the heart is much disposed to feel, when its spontaneous and almost indescribable emotions ask for a being to whom we may think aloud; yet on such occasions would the enchantment of the present time be broken, should we, by an express effort, seek even for the most intimate society.

‘ How frequently, in my present cheerless state, have I returned from the intercourse of my friends, from the contemplation of a beautiful scene, to my solitary apartment, with an aching heart.



My sensations accumulate too quick for me to be happy without the constant presence of one to whom I can disburthen them, I have often wept; I have walked backwards and forwards in my room—nay I have even talked to myself in order to tame down those craving emotions which pleaded for the blessing of an equal companion.

‘I am convinced that domestic relations are the necessary and indispensable means of leading the soul to general benevolence.—I have long existed without these relations, because my spirit has ever been agitated with fervors unnatural and almost fatal; but the sabbath, the quiet sabbath of a tranquil and subdued mind, is at length come, and I again recognize those human feelings and wishes, though not in a tumultuous, yet in no feeble degree, which create to the solitary man the necessity of the endearing names of husband and of father.’

‘You, Edith, my principles, my feelings, and my habits lead me to address.—When I think of marriage I contemplate a state in which two persons exert themselves for the same end in a constant unanimity of action—it presents the noblest of intellectual aims; it is a relation that affords an everlasting opportunity, nay, even implies the constant duty of making another happy;—it is, perhaps, a necessary scale in the grand process of intellectualization, and perfection.—It calls each soul out of itself—makes it necessarily extend its compass of hopes, and fears; creates the duties of a parent, and evermore presents objects for the tenderest feelings, and most interesting sympathies.’ Vol. ii. p. 286.

It is unnecessary to examine the defects of a story merely intended to convey opinions. A remarkable error has escaped the author; the *daughter* of Gertrude is born a *boy*.

We cannot conclude without strongly recommending this performance, as it possesses the irresistible eloquence of *Wester*, or the *Nouvelle Héloïse*, and contains no principle from which the most rigid moralist or the most devout Christian can justly dissent.

*The State of the Poor: or, an History of the Labouring Classes in England. By Sir Frederic Morton Eden, Baronet.*  
(Concluded from p. 84.)

IN the second book of this work, the national establishment for the poor, the laws relating to them, Mr. Pitt's alterations, and the improvements which have been proposed, are ably discussed. In this part Sir Frederic examines the propriety of our apprenticeship for seven years. It is evident that the time requisite for learning a trade must vary according to the difficulties of the business; and it is therefore absurd to require

so great a length of time for easy trades, as for those which are difficult. We may add, that it seems unjust to permit either parents or parochial officers to bind children for too long a period. We agree with our author, that a wise legislature will take the first opportunity of making alterations in this and other particulars; and the following remarks point out the general failing of legislative bodies.

‘ Those who are of opinion that the legislature are unnecessarily solicitous to provide, by means of apprenticeship, a due course of instruction for artificers and manufacturers, may, perhaps, be likewise inclined to think, that laws, which point out particular lines of industry to those who have attained that age at which they are usually deemed to be competent to the management of their own concerns, are still more futile and injudicious. Such laws, however, have, more or less, existed in all ages, and in all countries; and few writers have entered into the extensive field of political speculation, without recommending new institutions, and suggesting various plausible expedients, for rendering the people industrious, orderly, and economical. It seems, moreover, very problematical, whether a government ever attempted directly to regulate the course of industry, without producing considerable mischief. The excellence of legislation may, perhaps, be but estimated according as it leaves the individual exertion more or less unshackled. It is this exertion, (and not the superintending power of the state, which is so often, unthinkingly, extolled, as the immediate creator of social good, and as often unjustifiably condemned, as the immediate cause of social evil,) which, by its patient plodding labours, erects the edifice of national grandeur.’ Vol. i. p. 437.

The diet and clothing of the poor, in various counties, are compared; and many dishes are recommended, which we presume will be cooked in the cheap kitchens now established in different parts of the metropolis. Thus the poor will gradually be taught to improve their cookery; but we are apprehensive that these attempts to keep them in the cheapest manner, will end in a depreciation of their labour.

With regard to the effect of houses of industry, we concur with this writer, who observes, that

‘ A kind of glare, which obscures the truth, has been thrown upon work-houses and houses of industry, where, I am induced to believe, from experience and actual observation, the saving arises from the decreased expence, in accommodations, which takes place in consequence of a number of poor being collected together. The advantages, therefore, are only negative; and so far, and no farther, have they merit. This is the merit of the public kitchen of Munich, and of the much-vaunted work-house of Shrewsbury.’ Vol. i. p. 586.

On benefit societies are some useful hints ; and it is remarked, that the legislature ought to be cautious of interfering at all with them ; for the advantage derived from the last interference of the parliament is very problematical.

The second and third volumes contain the information which the author has, with great industry, collected from all quarters. This is arranged under proper heads ; and the politician may collect from these volumes many good hints for the improvement of the kingdom.

The intelligence concerning Cumberland is particularly copious. Of the parish of Bromfield, in that county, it is said, that

‘ A district less liable to extrinsic, or adventitious influence, than this parish could not easily be named : yet, even here, it appears, that within the last twenty years, the poor’s rates have nearly doubled ; this is the more extraordinary, as there are no manufactories in the parish ; and indeed hardly any other inhabitants in it besides a working peasantry. Much of the period herein specified has been blessed with peace : neither have the people there been visited with any uncommon calamities ; nor even with very hard times. Taking both men and women into the account, the present rates here impose a tax of six shillings and sixpence per poll : and if rated by the actual rent of the land, probably, about ninepence in the pound : in Blencogo, only, it seems not to exceed sixpence in the pound. All perhaps that is necessary to add, is, that the expences of litigations, and removals, are not included in this estimate : and that there are no box clubs, or friendly societies in the parish ; and above all, no benefactions, or regular annual charities bequeathed to the poor, a circumstance which, it has been observed in other districts, always has a considerable influence on the poor’s rates. October, 1793.’ Vol. ii. p. 49.

A remarkable instance of ‘ Cumberland œconomy ’ is given in the report from Cumwhitton, dated ‘ April, 1796.’ An old woman had an annual income of only 4l. 1s. 7½d. ; and she is represented as living contentedly upon that poor pittance.

‘ This woman’s earnings are small ; but she makes her expences correspond. She seems perfectly happy, content and cheerful ; and always takes care to avoid debt. Her father rented a small farm of only 8l. a year ; and as he was very lame, she was obliged to do the greatest part of the work. On his death she disposed of the stock, &c. and after discharging all his debts and funeral expences, a surplus of 10l. remained, which she placed in the hands of her landlord ; the interest of which pays her rent. When she was able to reap in harvest, she earned a little more money ; yet, notwithstanding her present scanty income, she has no thoughts of applying to the parish : she receives no assistance whatever from her

friends. Her common diet is hasty-pudding, milk, butter, and potatoes. She was brought up in a most frugal manner, and feels no inconvenience from being obliged to live so abstemiously. She never had a tea-pot in her house, at any period of her life.' Vol. ii. p. 75.

In some of the townships of Monkwearmouth, in the bishopric of Durham, we find that

'The poor are' [*January, 1796*] 'in a miserable condition; nor has any judicious plan yet been adopted for administering relief to them in a beneficial manner. In the northern townships the rates have risen to an enormous height, particularly since the commencement of the war. Part, however, of their rise, may, without imputing any thing to mismanagement, be fairly ascribed to the great increase in trade, population, buildings; and, I hope I may add, without being considered paradoxical, that the influx of wealth, which this parish has experienced within the last 40 years, has produced a more than proportionable addition of poor.' Vol. ii. p. 162.

In reading the following paragraph of the report from Ashford in Kent, we lamented the applicability of the observation to many other places.

'Poverty here, is generally ascribed to the low price of wages, and the high price of provisions: they suit each other very well in summer, but not in winter. The poor, in most parts of Kent, ten years ago, always eat meat daily: they now seldom taste it in winter, except they reside in a poor house. Private brewing, even amongst small farmers, is at an end. The poor drink tea at all their meals. This beverage, and bread, potatoes, and cheese, constitute their usual diet. Labourers only eat barley or oat bread. Even household bread is scarcely ever used: they buy the finest wheaten bread, and declare, (what I much doubt,) that brown bread disorders their bowels. Bakers do not now make, as they formerly did, bread of unsifted flour: at some farmers houses, however, it is still made of flour, as it comes from the mill; but this practice is going much into disuse. 20 years ago, scarcely any other than brown bread was used.' Vol. ii. p. 280.

The poor, we think, act rightly in rejecting brown bread. It is a very proper nourishment for the rich, who can temper it with many other kinds of food; but, if the poor man can scarcely get any provisions besides bread, it is economy in him to have the best that he can procure. Does not this paragraph cry out to the legislature, Keltore to the poor the power of brewing?

Passing from Kent into Lancashire (for the counties are

arranged in alphabetical order), we observe with pleasure, that, though the rates have rapidly increased at Liverpool,

‘ the resources of wealth are more than adequate to the calls of charity ; and that the poor, although more numerous, and proportionably more expensive than they were 30 years ago, are yet less burthenome to the town. than when it's trade was less flourishing, and it's parochial expenditure more contracted.’ Vol. ii. p. 328.

‘ The poor are partly maintained in the work-house, and partly relieved at home. The work-house is well situated, on a rising ground, in a detached situation ; and is, in many respects, constructed upon an eligible plan. The old people, in particular, are provided with lodging, in a most judicious manner : each apartment consists of three small rooms, in which are 1 fire-place and 4 beds, and is inhabited by 8 or 10 persons. These habitations are furnished with beds, chairs, and other little articles of domestic use, that the inmates may possess ; who, being thus detached from the rest of the poor, may consider themselves as comfortably lodged as in a secluded cottage ; and thus enjoy, in some degree, (even in a work-house,) the comforts of a private fire-side.’ Vol. ii. p. 329,

The report from Monmouth furnishes a striking instance of the high spirit of a labourer, who endures extreme poverty in his own house, rather than go to the work-house.

‘ Samuel Price, a labourer, 52 years old, has a wife and 9 children, viz. a girl aged 17, who is subject to fits, and not able to work ; a boy, aged 16, at service ; a boy, 15, at home ; another boy, 14, at home ; 3 girls, 12, 10, and 8 years old ; a boy, 3, and another boy, 1½ years old ; the wife is now pregnant.

The father, mostly, works for a gentleman at 8s. a *£* 8. s. d.  
week, and beer ; except in hay and corn harvest,  
when he has 1s. 6d. a day, and victuals ; annual  
amount about

21 3 0

The boy, who is 15 years old, earns, by going on  
errands, &c. about 1s. a week.

2 12 0

The other children earn nothing, but pick sticks for  
fuel in the winter

0 0 0

The wife earns, by baking bread for sale, annually  
about

1 5 0

Total income *£* 25 0 0

‘ *Expences.*

The man says, bread at present costs him about 9s. a  
week throughout the year, and that he could use  
more if he could get it

*£* 23 8 0

Brought forward	-	-	£ 23 8 0
Butter and cheese, about 6d. a week; he uses neither meat nor beer	-	-	1 6 0
Tea and sugar, about 4d. do.	-	-	0 17 4
Potatoes, 6d. a week	-	-	1 6 0
Fuel	-	-	0 8 8
House-rent	-	-	2 2 0
Soap, candle, thread, &c. about	-	-	1 6 0
Total expences			£ 30 14 0

‘ Here appears a deficiency of 5l. 14s.; yet, the man says, his children mostly go without shoes and stockings, and that the cloaths worn by him and his family are, mostly, if not wholly, given them by charitable people. The gentleman, for whom this labourer works, allows him about 3 pints of milk a day, which, with a little bread, serves his children for breakfast; his wife drinks tea: their dinner is, bread, potatoes, and salt, sometimes a little fat or dripping, if it can be procured cheap: their supper, generally, bread, or potatoes. The man says, his family is little more than half supplied with what they could eat. He rents his house of the corporation of Monmouth, at 2 guineas a year; but not being able to pay his rent, he says, they lately seized on all his working tools, some of his furniture, &c. and sold them, so that he is obliged to borrow spades, axes, &c.: he applied to the parish for relief; which they offered, on condition that he would come into the poor-house with all his family; which he has hitherto refused to do. From farther enquiry, it appears, that the man is honest and industrious. He is determined to remain in his house, in defiance of the corporation. His children, having been bred up in idleness, and in the most abject illiterate state, (although several of them have been at service,) are so saucy, that no person will employ them.’ Vol. ii. p. 448.

Surely an honest and industrious man, as this is represented to be, deserves better treatment from his neighbours.

At Newark, a similar spirit has been evinced.

‘ The badge appointed by the act of king William, is worn’ [May, 1795] ‘ by the paupers of this parish: it was laid aside a few years ago, but the poor having increased very much, it was resumed last year; and the consequence has been, that several persons, who had before made regular applications to the parish, have now declined asking for relief.’ Vol. ii. p. 571.

The order for the resumption of a badge which had been disused, may be thought to argue a want of delicacy in the overseers of the poor at Newark; but, in another point, some

portion of that quality is shown. In the work-house, which is one of the best in England,

‘A few apartments, rather neater than the rest, are appointed for the reception of such persons as have been unfortunately precipitated from an easy station in life, to the humiliating condition of subsisting on a parochial allowance; and their situation receives every attention, that humanity can dictate.’ Vol. ii. p. 571.

The two following extracts are submitted to the consideration of the advocates for houses of industry.

‘Notwithstanding the promised advantages of this institution,’ [*the house of industry at Ellesmere*] ‘it is said that the incorporated parishes are, in general, now heartily sorry that they ever engaged in the erection of an house of industry.’ Vol. ii. p. 619.

‘At Tatingstone, 6 miles from Ipswich, there is a house of industry, which was incorporated in 1765: one-fourth of their original debt has been paid off; but the corporation is now under the necessity of applying to parliament for authority to increase the rates. The 25 parishes incorporated, are almost unanimous in wishing to have the corporation dissolved; as they think they can maintain their poor at less expence, and with more comforts, at home.’ Vol. ii. p. 692.

The account of Burwash in Suffex is calculated to excite unpleasant reflections.

‘The parish of Burwash is situated about 6 miles to the east of Mayfield. It contains about 230 houses, and 1100 inhabitants. Of the land, about 5000 acres are cultivated; 1200 are wood; and 200 are common, of little value. The rental exceeds 3100l. a year.

		£.	s.	d.	
The expences for the poor in 1776 were		470	12	3	} From the returns made to parliament in 1786.
The assessments - in 1783		545	2	10	
Ditto - in 1784		658	17	0	
Ditto - in 1785		700	16	5	

s. d.

The poor's rates were 4 6 in the pound in 1793.

5 3 - in 1794.

6 3 - in 1795, and raised about 900l.

‘Twenty years ago, their whole amount was about 550l.; thirty years ago, they did not exceed 400l. Agriculture is the only employment in the parish.

‘From this short, though singular, account, it appears, that one fourth of the population of the parish are paupers; that nearly one third of its rental goes to the support of the poor; and that it's

expences, in this way, are daily and rapidly increasing. June 1796.' Vol. iii. p. 727.

Those who have considered the question of the benefits of commonage, should attend to the report from Sutton-Colefield, in Warwickshire. This parish

' is divided into 4 quarters, each of which has an overseer. The poor here, besides the right of commonage, have this peculiar privilege, that every house-keeper may take in one acre of common, and plough it 4 years: and the 5th year, he must sow it with clover, and lay it to the common again; after which he may take another acre, and work it in the like manner. By this method, about 400 acres of common are constantly kept in tillage. It might be supposed, that, with these extraordinary privileges, the poor were in a most comfortable condition: this is, however, far from being the case: the poor are numerous, and the rates high; and this parish, among others, affords an unequivocal proof, that a right of common does not add, either to the comforts, or the happiness of the poor. Aug. 1795.' Vol. iii. p. 749.

In the neighbourhood of Ecclesfield, in Yorkshire, the poor fare wretchedly.

' Oat-bread is very generally used among the labouring poor: they eat water-pottage twice, and sometimes three times, a day: it is made with boiling water, oatmeal, and onions; to which sometimes a little butter is added: the proportions of oatmeal and butter have been much lessened since the rise in the price of those articles took place; and it is not an uncommon thing, at this season, for the poor to dine partly on nettles; which they boil, and season with a little salt and pepper.' Vol. iii. p. 814.

At the end of the parochial reports, we find a copious Appendix, containing tables of the price of provisions and labour at different periods and in different places, acts of parliament respecting the poor, heads of Mr. Pitt's proposed plan, and other papers connected with the same subject.

Just remarks are made upon the utility of the tables above-mentioned. We will quote the pleasing passage in which those observations occur.

' The historian, who wishes to record the progress of society, will not confine himself to a recital of public transactions: he will often explore the recesses of domestic life; and minutely detail the employments, the manners, and the comforts, of different ranks in society, in order to exemplify, (for it is only by such details that he can properly exemplify,) the excellence or defects of political institutions. It is not on the wide expanse of the ocean that the unbounded trade of Great Britain can be investigated: her ports, her dock-yards, her warehouses, and even her retail-shops must be vi-



fited by those who wish to acquire an adequate idea of the magnitude of her commercial concerns. So, the annalist, who wishes to inform, must often quit the splendid scenes of national glory, and condescend to particularize the humbler occupations of mankind. Hume is, perhaps, the only one of our modern historians, who has justly appreciated the value of information, which, before his time, had been usually deemed frivolous and unimportant; but which, attentively considered, is highly illustrative of the state of agriculture and the other arts: and often very satisfactorily solves the important question;—whether the condition of society is retrograde, stationary, or progressive. Thus, I conceive, a chronological account of the prices of labour and of commodities, (however lightly some may esteem such objects of enquiry,) would alone, (when it could be procured,) furnish a complete epitome of the most important branch of history; for it would enable us to judge, what quantities of the necessaries and conveniences of life equal portions of labour have procured at different periods; or, in other words, to determine, whether the great business of human life has been conducted with more or less facility. If we can decide that the various classes of the nation, by their ordinary strength and industry, are now better supplied with these essential articles than the people at the Revolution; and still better than their rude forefathers at the Conquest; we have an indubitable proof of the advanced, and advancing, state of society.' Vol. iii. p. iii.

From the account which we have given of this work, our readers will, we are persuaded, agree with us, that its author deserves well of the public. He has laid the basis for true political investigation; and there are two classes of our readers, to whom almost every page is interesting—members of parliament and justices of the peace. Both are frequently required to take into consideration the state of the poor; and we have had frequent instances of the crude notions, which, from want of general information, they are apt to entertain upon this subject. If every bench of justices would order a copy of this work to be placed near the publications of Burn and Blackstone, they would facilitate the dissemination of useful knowledge in their districts, and might assist the writer in his future inquiries; for we cannot think that he will rest contented with his present labours; and he deserves the utmost encouragement from every lover of his country. Some regulations proposed to the legislature have very properly been rejected: but we could wish that a simple one might be adopted, obliging every parish to print annually an account of its expenditure on the poor, and of the rates; by which means not only our author would easily acquire information, but each district would gradually become sensible of the difference between true and false economy.

*A Complete System of Pleading: comprehending the most approved Precedents and Forms of Practice; chiefly consisting of such as have never before been printed: with an Index to the principal Work, incorporating and making it a Continuation of Townshend's and Cornwall's Tables, to the present Time; as well as an Index of Reference to all the ancient and modern Entries extant. By John Wentworth, Esq. of the Inner Temple, Barrister at Law. Vol. III\*. containing Assumpsit and Covenant. Vol. IV. and the first of the Criminal Division, containing Indictments, Informations, &c. 8vo. Boards. 12s. each. Robinsons. 1797.*

WE congratulate Mr. Wentworth on the progress of his laborious undertaking, in which much professional industry has been employed. The third volume

'contains the remainder of Declarations in Assumpsit, not reducible to any distinct head. The pleas, replications, rejoinders, &c. in Assumpsit, and an index complete to the pleas, replications, &c. in Assumpsit only, and part of Covenant.' p. v.

The writer thus accounts for an apparent incorrectness in the collocation of some of the precedents in this volume:

'In the former part of the present volume, there may appear to the critical reader to be precedents which could have been ranged under proper and distinct heads, as Assumpsit to repay money—against a master of a ship—and for contribution to party-walls; but the student will find the precedents in their proper place in the index, and the pleader will perceive from perusing the precedent, the anomaly which justifies classing them in the number of those not reducible to any distinct head. *Ex. gr.* to repay 'insurance' money; an 'action for contribution to party-walls,' is more aptly called by lawyers an action on the statute. But although the statute raises the duty, yet, as in the form of declaring, there is something necessary to be averred, to have been done and performed by the plaintiff, namely, the building, &c. before he can call upon defendant to perform his part; I have thought proper to refer this and similar cases to the head of anomalies. *Indebitatus Assumpsit* is considered to be the general head for this sort of action, and I have given one form in the first volume, but I was then, and still am at a loss to define Assumpsit General from what pleaders call *Special*.' p. v.

Law is a science which abounds with anomalies and exceptions. We therefore do not wonder, that, in a very intricate practical branch of the profession, perfect nicety of arrangement should be extremely difficult. We feel, however,

some surprise at Mr. Wentworth's assertion, that he is at a loss to define the difference between *Assumpsit general* and what pleaders call *special*. As reviewers, we might without disgrace acknowledge our ignorance of the *arcana* of special pleading; but it appears to us, that there is a very intelligible distinction between the two species of *Assumpsit* mentioned. As a controversy of this kind, however, would be uninteresting to a majority of our readers, we shall decline entering into it: and, with respect to the *special pleaders* themselves, politeness forbids us to suppose that they adopt in *practice* a distinction which upon *principle* they do not clearly understand.

The fourth volume contains a selection of precedents adapted to the various titles in the criminal law. This part of the work will form a very useful addition to the scanty number of crown precedents, exclusively in print. In the preface to this volume there are some remarks on our criminal jurisprudence, which, though not distinguished by striking novelty, are recommended by sense and humanity.

‘The causes of the disproportion, in many instances, between the offence and the punishment with us, may be traced partly to the mistaken notion, that crimes are best prevented by severity; partly to abuses and offences which once called for vigorous redress and exemplary penalties, that have now ceased to be formidable; and partly to the penal statutes having grown up into their present bulk, just as the growing depravities attendant on national prosperity pointed out the necessity of them, and to their never having been subjected at any time to a review which might balance and adjust them. It is this review which appears to me to be almost the only thing wanting to make our criminal code more perfect and less liable to objection; many of our neighbours on the continent have set an example of improving this important branch of jurisprudence, and have derived innumerable practical advantages from it.

‘How much then is it to be desired (and here, I am certain, I speak the sentiments of the whole profession) that there may be found, at no distant period, in the senate, a temperate legislator, both qualified and ambitious to undertake a task so momentous and delicate; one who shall add to professional accuracy the ampler views of the statesman, who will remember with pleasure, that if much is to be cut off, more is to be preserved; who shall love to repair rather than to rebuild, or impair the fabric by removing its foundation, nor yet be so tender of what he finds established as not to dare oppose the tyranny of custom (whether arisen from the causes alluded to, or the practice of the administration of justice, criminal or civil), where ever it leads to consequences palpably injurious or absurd.’ P. v.

We fear that so desirable a reform, will not speedily take place, when we consider the almost constant avocations of the judges, and the press of business on the other law officers of the crown. These honourable servants of the public are certainly best qualified to perform the task in question; but it would be unjust to require them to undertake it without a proper recompense for the emolument or the relaxation which they would in that case be compelled to sacrifice.

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*Stapelia Novæ: or, a Collection of several new Species of that Genus; discovered in the interior Parts of Africa. By Francis Maffon. Fascic. I—IV. 4to. Nicol. 1796—8.*

IN our account of the travels of M. Thunberg \*, we incidentally noticed his companion Mr. Maffon, and referred to the present beautiful plates. We then styled the stapelia the camel of the vegetable world, as it contains a supply of water, which secures it from the fatal effects of long-continued drought, and enables it to exist in regions, where neither the air nor the soil can afford more than irregular, and often scanty, supplies of moisture. The uninformed botanist may obtain, from various specimens of the common house-leek, a general idea of the habits and appearance of these succulent plants; and, in the hot-houses, he may see various aloes, ficoids, and thistles, which flourish in the driest earth. The inquirers into vegetable nature suppose, that the moisture of the stapelia is attracted from the air, and the plant supplied by its roots. To this, as a general process, nothing can be objected; but these plants continue to flourish in torrid regions, where no moisture exists in the air, and where the ground is equally arid. It is probable that they absorb unusually large quantities of fluid, and retain it to supply the deficiency of drier seasons. Their roots seem to absorb fluids with peculiar activity, and the leaves to perspire in a very small degree.

In our review of the travels of the two Swedish naturalists, Sparrman and Thunberg, we gave a general idea of the country in the neighbourhood of the Cape. On the north, and particularly on the north-west, are extensive sandy deserts, incapable of cultivation. The interior part is more mountainous; and, on the sides of the mountains, we chiefly find the laborious exertions of the colonists. These deserts are valuable only to the botanist, who finds in them plants adapted to the arid soil and the precarious supplies of rain, and detects the resources of nature in situations, of which, as he had no

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\* See our last volume, p. 521.

former example, he could form no just idea. The neighbouring mountains afforded retreats to a vast number of animals, before the colonists had pursued them in their native haunts, particularly the elephant, rhinoceros, camelopardalis, and hippopotamus. The birds are numerous, as many escape from the burning sands of Africa to this comparatively temperate clime. Many of the quadrupeds have been described by Sparrman, le Vaillant, and Thunberg; but, of the birds, we have received more imperfect accounts. From Mr. Maffon we have had various specimens of plants, which are described in the Hortus Kewensis of the late intelligent and industrious Mr. Aiton. The promised Flora Capensis of Thunberg has not yet, we believe, appeared: we have only seen the Prodrömus.

The genus *stapelia* forms a striking feature in the vegetable beauty of these sterile regions: it contributes to enliven the desert, though it often tantalises the traveller with hopes of food for himself and his famished cattle. The beauty, however, is comparative only. The flower usually rests on its succulent leaf, exhibiting lurid hues, which are sometimes varied by an elegant arrangement of its displeasing tints, and breathing an hepatic air, so strongly resembling the smell of putrid animal food, as to induce the fly in this country to select it as its nidus. In the plates before us, these plants, with their flowers, are represented with elegance and fidelity, though with a brilliancy of colour a little heightened, as far as we can judge from our observation of some of the species in our own climate.

Forty new *stapeliae* are represented in four fasciculi. Some of them have seemingly been described by Thunberg, but so briefly, as to prevent an ascertainment of their identity. The first species is certainly described by that naturalist—the *f. ciliata*, from the ciliated margin of the corolla: the *f. reticulata*, *venusta*, *guttata*, *humilis*, &c. are new.

The next fasciculus contains also new species—the *f. grandiflora*, *ambigua*, *pulvinata*, &c.

The *f. pilifera*, of the third fasciculus, has been described in the Prodrömus of Thunberg, and the *f. articulata* (perhaps the *f. mamillaris* of Linnæus) by Aiton. The *f. pedunculata*, *divaricata*, *punctata*, &c. are new. The *f. pedunculata*, of which the flowers are on high upright footstalks, forms an exception to the general habit of the genus. The *f. decora* and *elegans*, are denominated from the beauty and elegance of the plant rather than the flowers. The joints of the *f. articulata* are eaten raw by the Hottentots, and pickled by the colonists.

The fourth fasciculus comprehends, among other species, a very beautiful *stapelia*, the *pruinosa*. A plant of this species

flowered in Kew gardens, while the work was in the press. The *f. pulla* has been described in the *Hortus Kewensis*; the *incarnata* in Thunberg's *Prodromus*. The *f. ramosa*, *arida*, *parviflora*, &c. are new.

Upon the whole, these fasciculi are equally elegant and correct: they add greatly to our knowledge of nature, as well as of this rare genus of plants.

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*The Life of Catharine II. Empress of Russia. An enlarged Translation from the French. With seven Portraits elegantly engraved, and a correct Map of the Russian Empire. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman. 1798.*

WHEN the task of translating an historical work is undertaken by a person who had long resided in the country to which it relates, and who had studiously endeavoured to collect the best intelligence concerning its affairs, some improvement of the original, in point of accurate information, may reasonably be expected. On this ground, the present work appears under favourable auspices, as Mr. Tooke, the well-known describer of the Russian empire, is understood to be the translator and the extender of the French account of the life and reign of the late empress.

Referring the reader to our analysis of the original work\*, we proceed to observe, that the letters from Tom Drawer to Mr. Pitt have not been translated by Mr. Tooke, who has given, in lieu of them, a succinct statistic account of the Russian empire.

Among the additions which we find in the first of the three volumes, we meet with a weak attempt to vindicate the empress from the guilt of the murder of her husband.

\* The real manner in which the czar came by his death is, after all, one of those events over which, it is probable, there will be for ever a veil impenetrable to human eyes; and known only to that being to whom the heart is open, and from whom no secrets are concealed. The partizans that might have retained their attachment to him after his fall; the murmurs of the populace, who quietly permit revolutions to be effected, and afterwards lament those who have fallen their victims; the difficulties arising from keeping in custody a prisoner of such consequence; all these motives in conjunction tend to give credit to the opinion that some hand of uncontrollable authority shortened his days. But the conduct of the empress before that event, and especially for four and

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thirty years that she afterwards reigned, is of itself alone a sufficient refutation of so atrocious a calumny, as would fix the guilt of it on her.' Vol. i. P. 342.

The last remark argues a gross ignorance of the true character of Catharine, whose ambition was unbounded, and who, in the gratification of that passion, was totally regardless of that moderation and humanity which she affected (and indeed not infrequently displayed) on ordinary occasions. A princess who had proceeded so far as to depose her husband, and usurp his throne, would not scruple to secure her ill-acquired power by additional atrocity, as she would conceive that the murder of the dethroned prince was essential to her safety; and she who, unprovoked, could ravage neighbouring territories with fire and sword, would not hesitate to give orders for the assassination of an obnoxious prince.

Various additions, tending to render the work more complete and satisfactory, appear in the second and third volumes; but it is not necessary to particularise them.

The following account of Catharine's behaviour, after the suppression of the rebellion of Pugatshoff, will serve as a specimen of the style of the work.

' Shortly after the punishment of Pugatshoff, the empress had a fresh opportunity for displaying her clemency, by granting a pardon to men who, though not guilty of crimes of so heinous a nature as those of that traitor, yet were justly deserving of capital punishment. They were the treasurers of the empire, who had embezzled the public money. Catharine would not even allow them to be brought to trial. She had overcome what was naturally irascible and violent in her temper, and had learnt patience and lenity from the lessons of philosophy. She has also been heard to say, "What I cannot overthrow, I undermine and root up." The heavy burden incurred by her foreign and domestic wars did not prevent the empress from taking off most of the taxes which were laid for their support; and, as if the strength and riches of government in her country increased with its expence, she also abolished a number of the ancient taxes, which were either considered as discouraging to agriculture, or burdensome and oppressive to particular provinces or orders of the people. In the same spirit of beneficence and good policy, she lent great sums of money, interest free, and for a specified term of years, to those provinces which were ruined by the late rebellion; and, to crown a general pardon, she strictly forbade any particulars of that unfortunate affair to be called up, or any reproaches used on its account, but condemned all matters relative to it to perpetual silence and oblivion.

' She also established a number of other regulations, all tending to the security, advantage, and happiness of her subjects, to abolish pernicious distinctions, destroy ruinous monopolies, restrain

the cruelty of punishment, remove oppressive or impolitic restrictions or prohibitions, and to restore mankind to a more equitable degree of equality, in those different ranks which they fill in society. A pardon was also granted to those criminals who had already undergone a long degree of suffering for their crimes; and an ordinance issued to prevent any future criminal prosecution from being admitted, unless commenced within ten years after the date of the charge. Equal humanity was shewn with respect to imprisoned debtors, who, under certain limitations, and in certain circumstances, were released from confinement. All the heirs of the debtors to the crown were discharged from their bonds and obligations.' Vol. ii. p. 361.

We subjoin a part of the character of prince Potemkin, that our readers may compare Mr. Tooke's translation of it with that which we gave in our review of the original work.

' Prince Gregory Alexandrovitch Potemkin was one of the most extraordinary men of his time; but in order to have played so conspicuous a part, he must have been in Russia, and have lived in the reign of Catharine II. In any other country, in any other times, with any other sovereign, he would have been misplaced; and it was a singular stroke of chance that created this man for the period that tallied with him, and brought together and combined all the circumstances with which he could tally.

' In his person were collected the most opposite defects and advantages of every kind. He was avaricious and ostentatious, despotic and popular, inflexible and beneficent, haughty and obliging, politic and confiding, licentious and superstitious, bold and timid, ambitious and indiscreet. Lavish of his bounties to his relations, his mistresses, and his favourites, yet frequently paying neither his household nor his creditors. His consequence always depended on a woman, and he was always unfaithful to her. Nothing could equal the activity of his mind, nor the indolence of his body. No dangers could appal his courage; no difficulties force him to abandon his projects. But the success of an enterprise always brought on disgust.

' He wearied the empire by the number of his posts and the extent of his power. He was himself fatigued with the burden of his existence; envious of all that he did not do, and sick of all that he did. Rest was not grateful to him, nor occupation pleasing. Every thing with him was desultory; business, pleasure, temper, carriage. In every company he had an embarrassed air, and his presence was a restraint on every company. He was morose to all that stood in awe of him, and caressed all such as accosted him with familiarity.

' Ever promising, seldom keeping his word, and never forgetting any thing. None had read less than he; few people were better informed. He had talked with the skilful in all professions, in



all the sciences, in every art. None better knew how to ward forth and appropriate to himself the knowledge of others. In conversation he would have astonished a scholar, an artist, an artisan, and a divine. His information was not deep, but it was very extensive. He never dived into a subject, but he spoke well on all subjects.' Vol. iii. p. 389.

The translation is in general faithful, as far as we have compared it with the original; and, though the diction is frequently incorrect, the information contained in the work is important and valuable.

*Mythology compared with History; or, the Fables of the Ancients elucidated from historical Records. For the Use of Young Persons. To which is now first added, an Enquiry into the Religion of the first Inhabitants of Great Britain. Together with some Account of the ancient Druids. Dedicated to the Right Hon. Lady Barbara Pleydell Bouverie. By M. l'Abbé De Tressan. Translated from the French by H. North.* 8vo. 8s. Boards. Cadell and Davies, 1797!

THE connection of mythology with classical pursuits, and the reference which it bears to the earlier periods of history, give interest to the subject which the abbé de Tressan has thought proper to investigate; and he has executed his task with care and diligence.

The work commences with remarks on the rise of idolatry. The observations, however, are those of Bossuet. In the prosecution of the subject, the abbé treats of the Chaldæic traditions, which combined fabulous narratives with sacred history. He proceeds to state the chief religious opinions of the ancient Egyptians; and intimates, that, while some enlightened individuals entertained just conceptions of the Deity, the people were immersed in the grossest idolatry. He is of opinion, that idolatry first appeared in Egypt and Phœnicia; that among the earliest objects of adoration were two divinities, one supposed to be the author of all good, the other of all evil; and that the worship of the sun and the stars soon followed, or perhaps preceded, that of the two gods.

Speaking of the origin of fables, he says,

'Vanity was one of the principal sources of fiction. Truth was found not sufficiently surprising, not sufficiently attractive; they decked her with borrowed ornaments, and thought to magnify the reputation of heroes, by ascribing to them actions they had never performed. They probably even proposed these imaginary models as more powerful incitements to virtue. But by permitting themselves to be thus led away by a taste for the marvellous,

they at laſt deprived illuſtrious men of all the merit they might have poſſeſſed.

‘ For inſtance, when Perſeus ſlays Meduſa, he ſurpriſes her ſleeping; if he delivers Andromeda, he has the wings of Mercury. Achilles is clad with impenetrable arms forged by Vulcan. They went ſo far as to lavish on their heroes all the attributes of Gods.

‘ It is thus we are blinded by vanity and other paſſions, which miſis of their intended object, by being carried to exceſs.

‘ Before the invention of letters, great events and brilliant exploits were no otherwiſe recorded, than in the memory of men; or at moſt only by a few obſcure hieroglyphics.

‘ The remembrance of celebrated actions, then, was preſerved by tradition; but experience proves, how ſeldom it is, that even the moſt ſimple narrations are not mixed with ſome embellishing circumſtances.

‘ When in the courſe of time men wiſhed to write theſe actions, they found nothing but conſuſed traditions; and, by giving them a place in hiſtory, they have in ſome degree eterniſed fictions. p. 35.

Many fables, he adds, aroſe from an ignorance of natural philoſophy; and a want of acquaintance with ancient hiſtory and chronology was another ſource of fiction.

He chiefly directs his attention to the mythology of the Greeks and Romans. After a claſſification of the deities adored by thoſe nations, he enters upon a particular account of each.

He treats copiouſly of Jupiter. He firſt examines the number of gods who bore that appellation; he then gives the mythology of the principal Jupiter; annexes a leſs problematical hiſtory of his exploits; endeavours to explain ſome of the fictions which relate to him; mentions the different modes of repreſenting him; and ſpeaks of the worſhip which he received.

He thus explains ſome particulars relative to Minerva:

‘ Several inventions were attributed to Minerva; that of the poſite arts, the uſe of oil, the art of ſpinning, and ornamental tapeſtry.

‘ Theſe pretended inventions were merely allegorical. Arts and ſciences are the real riches of the mind, and worthy of the patronage of wiſdom.

‘ Oil ſhows, that to acquire knowledge we muſt frequently conſecrate our nights to ſtudy.

‘ The art of ſpinning repreſents the patience and perſeverance neceſſary in proſecuting our works; and by the ornaments of tapeſtry we are ſhown, that it ſhould be our ſtudy to embellish them.

‘ Minerva is ſaid to have proceeded from the head of Jupiter, to expreſs, that wiſdom is not of human invention, but of divine

origin. She is represented coming into the world armed ; becauſe the wiſe, ſupported by a clear conſcience and unſpotted virtue, are able to combat vice, and remain firm under miſfortune. She is deſcribed as a virgin, becauſe wiſdom cannot unite with corruption, or earthly pleaſure. She has no external ornaments, and is of a ſtern countenance, becauſe ſhe needs no borrowed decorations ; ſhe ſhines with equal luſtre when clothed in the ruſſet gown, or inveſted with royal purple. Her aſpect, always noble, inſpires equal love and reſpect, whether under the wrinkles of old age, or the charms and bloom of youth. She is frequently represented holding a diſtaff, and preparing to ſpin, intended to teach us, that we ſhould avoid idleneſs, and, to all others, prefer thoſe employments which are moſt uſeful. Bellona preſided over ſanguinary wars ; it was over the war againſt vice that Minerva preſided. On her head ſhe wears a helmet, having on the top of it an owl. In one hand ſhe holds a lance, and in the other the egis (a ſort of ſhield, covered with the ſkin of a ſerpent ſlain by herſelf, and having in the middle a representation of the head of Meduſa, one of the Gorgons).

‘ This ſhield and armour were uſed by the goddeſs to ſtrike terror into the guilty.

‘ The owl perched upon the helmet was to expreſs, that wiſdom frequently delights to meditate in the ſolemn ſilence and tranquillity of night.’ P. 173.

Of the Grecian Hermes he obſerves, that

‘ Mercury, ſon of Jupiter and Maia, acquired great reputation among the Titan princes.

‘ After the death of his father, Italy, Gaul, and Spain, fell to his lot ; but he was not abſolute ſovereign of them till the death of his uncle Pluto.

‘ This prince poſſeſſing great talents, great addreſs, and even great ſubtlety, travelled into Egypt to acquire a knowledge of the ſciences and cuſtoms of that country. He there learned magic in particular, which was then much in uſe.

‘ He was conſulted by the Titans his relations as an augur, which gave occaſion to the poets to deſcribe him as interpreter of the will of the gods.

‘ In this excursion into Egypt he obtained initiation into all their myſteries. The uſe which Jupiter made of his addreſs and eloquence made him regarded as the meſſenger of the gods ; and his ſucceſs in ſeveral treaties of peace procured him the appellation of God of Peace. He contributed greatly to civilize the manners, and cultivate the minds of the people. He united them by commerce and good laws ; but the great defects which accompanied his extraordinary abilities involved him in a war with the other children of

Jupiter, in which he was vanquiſhed; and returning into Egypt ended his days there.

‘ This Mercury of the Greeks was generally regarded as the inventor of the fine arts.

‘ The Gauls honoured him under the name of Teutates, and offered to him human victims.’ P. 209.

He accounts, in the following manner, for the elevation of the moſt diſtinguiſhed princes and heroes to the rank of demi-gods.

‘ Amid the woes with which he found himſelf ſurrounded [in the ſtate of unciviliſed ſociety], retaining all his pride, man carried his madneſs ſo far as to adore even his fellow-creatures, who became formidable by their bravery, or aſſiſted him in his neceſſities. The abuſe of power ſoon compelled all to unite againſt it; the flames of war were kindled, and to the diſeaſes, wants, and calamities with which nature daily threatened his frail exiſtence, man added this cruel ſcourge. In the firſt engagements, courage attracted every eye; the timid and weak did not then pretend to diſpute the firſt rank or its dangers with him who alone was capable of defending it; but when the victory was gained, cupidity, pride, and ambition, reſumed their empire.

‘ The triumphant and courageous would no longer be confounded with the vulgar; elevation gave offence; envy on one ſide, and ingratitude on the other, excited fury. The earth again was wet with human gore; and who can recount the blood it coſt to convince mankind, that other laws were wanting than their outrageous paſſions. It ſoon appeared that war would be eternal; and this moſt terrible of arts became a ſtudy. Every one perceived, that he muſt ſacrifice ſome portion of his pride to the more preſſing neceſſity of obtaining protection: rewards were aſſigned the conqueror, and the rank of each was determined by his ſtrength and courage. This gave riſe to emulation, which is inſeparable from glory; and Glory, who would always be juſt in the diſtribution of her favours, compelled Admiration and Gratitude to crown him who returned with the greateſt number of trophies, and ſhewed himſelf moſt capable of defending others.

‘ Such is the real origin of thoſe kings and heroes, whom the weakneſs and folly of man pretended afterwards to rank with the divinities.’ P. 202.

To the merit of originality this work has little claim: but it is not an unpleaſing or uſeleſs performance; and the tranſlation, conſidered as a firſt attempt, does credit to Mr. North.

*Practical Astronomy; containing a Description of the Solar System; the Doctrine of the Sphere; the principal Problems in Astronomy. Illustrated with many Examples. Together with Astronomical Tables of the Sun, Moon, and primary Planets. By Alexander Ewing, Teacher of Mathematics, Edinburgh. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman. 1797.*

IT is the aim of Mr. Ewing to introduce astronomy into schools; and, without doubt, much of it might be taught in those seminaries with advantage. But, for this purpose, the first principles of the science ought to be rendered familiar to ordinary capacities.

Our author informs us, that the work

' was undertaken with the design of assisting students who have no other previous qualification except' [*than*] ' the knowledge of arithmetic, of the circles of the sphere, and the use of logarithms. With these qualifications (which may be attained in a short time), and the help of this book, any *person* may learn to solve the problems relating to the places and positions of the sun, moon, planets, and fixed stars, for any given time and place; either with the assistance of a teacher, or by *themselves*, as they choose.

' To accomplish the end proposed, tables of the sun, moon, and planets, have been calculated and collected, adapted to the Gregorian style, and extended farther than former tables; and the whole has been so abridged and condensed as to be comprehended in little room, that, being short and cheap, it might' [*may*] ' be a proper school-book, and at the same time afford sufficient assistance for solving all the common problems in practical astronomy.'  
p. vii.

Of the three previous qualifications here mentioned, arithmetic is the only one that can be procured in the majority of schools. Logarithms, a mode of calculating both easy and useful, are scarcely ever studied; and, if, in the advertisement of the academy, mention is made of the use of the globes, it is announced from mere motives of ostentation; for the boy, at the end of the time assigned for his education, returns home almost as ignorant of the nature of the sphere as he was when he first went to school. We are, therefore, not very sanguine in our expectations of the general success of this performance, as a school-book, though in some schools it may be read with considerable benefit.

As, on the one hand, it is not well calculated for an introductory book, it is, on the other hand, too diffuse in various points; and the arrangement also is susceptible of improvement.

A specimen of Mr. Ewing's mode of description follows:

‘ Mercury and Venus are called inferior planets, because they are nearer to the sun than any of the rest; and in their annual motions they appear to a spectator on the earth to traverse forward and backward small spaces on each side of the sun, and are frequently in conjunction with him, but never in opposition, nor even at 90 degrees distance; which is an ocular demonstration of the truth of the Copernican system.

‘ When Venus appears on the west of the sun, she rises before him in the morning, and is then called the morning star; and when she appears to the east of the sun, she sets after him in the evening, and is the evening star. She is in each of these positions about 290 days together: but is not visible to us all that time; for when near the sun on either side she is hid in his light.

‘ It may seem absurd to affirm that Venus remains on the west or east side of the sun longer than the whole time of her period round him; but while Venus moves through any part of her orbit, the earth moves the same way; and therefore her apparent motion, when direct, is only the difference between her own proper motion and that of the earth; and besides, she appears sometimes to be stationary, and at other times retrograde.’ p. 6.

Many of the problems, we observe, are given with good directions; and the work, upon the whole, bears the marks of attention and diligence.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### POLITICS.

*Peace in our Power, upon Terms not unreasonable.* By Charles Baring, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1798.

THE expense, more perhaps than even the length of our contest with France, prepares the mind to receive with gladness the intimation that peace may be restored upon conditions not unreasonable. Our joy, however, is checked when we consider, that, even if the most upright, judicious, and patriotic of men, should preach any other doctrine than that of his majesty's minister, he would instantly be anathematized as an enemy to his country. The question is not now by what means we can obtain a *glorious* peace, but by what means we can procure the best possible peace in our circumstances. Our author, therefore, counter-acting all the prejudices which have been excited in favour of 'indemnity for the past,' proposes terms which amount to *sacrifices*, and which are not in themselves unreasonable. Attention is due to such a writer. He evidently is not the blind follower of a party: he writes from mature thinking and knowledge of the state of the na-

tion ; and his long and honourable mercantile connections afford a presumption that he will offer nothing incompatible with the true dignity of Great Britain.

After some remarks on the relative situations of England and France, the substance of which is, that 'England can hardly defend, but at too great an expense, her vast trade, and that France, with little more than her own peace establishment, can oblige England to maintain a considerable war establishment,' he proposes, 1. That the title of king of France be discontinued by his majesty, without the formal sanction of a treaty ; 2. That we should gratify Denmark, Sweden, Russia, and other powers, by engaging in future to treat neutral ships as neutral property, except in particular cases of contraband trade. The English have constantly claimed and exercised, in time of war, a right of seizing and condemning the property of their enemies, when found on board of neutral vessels. 'If England and France choose to be at war,' says Mr. Baring, 'I would ask any reasonable and moderate man, whether the Englishman or Frenchman can with greater propriety break into a Danish ship than into a Danish house ? We should be ashamed to attempt by land what we boast of doing by sea. The French, indeed, have by land acted upon a similar principle ; and we reproach them for their conduct ; but can we do so with strict propriety, merely because the case of seizing enemies' property on land is not to be found in any work on the laws of nations ?'—His third proposition is, That we should offer terms of peace to France, upon the principle of resigning, to her and her allies, all our conquests without reserve, but should refuse to allow any compensation for the ships destroyed at Toulon, or to make any other concession or sacrifice, however unimportant in its nature.

Having stated these propositions, and explained in what respect they would not be unreasonable or disadvantageous to us, Mr. Baring answers such objections as he conceives may be raised against them ; and as these objections, in his apprehension, are not material, this point is accomplished with little difficulty. With regard to the two first propositions, we may affirm, that they would remove some obstacles to the approach as well as continuance of peace ; and, as to the resignation of all our conquests, it is generally believed that lord Malmesbury, when at Lisle, had instructions to proceed to that extent, provided he could have obtained peace by it. It is, however, easy to adduce objections of which Mr. Baring has not taken notice ; and, if we are determined to *die hard*, the changes may be rung upon the honour of the nation and indemnity for the past, until we are reduced to our last guinea : but we are convinced, that, if the sentiments of the nation could be collected upon this plan, it would have the suffrages of nine-tenths of the whole body.

*Plain Facts : in Five Letters to a Friend, on the present State of Politics.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Jordan. 1798.

Among the professed subjects of this pamphlet, we find 'the

present extraordinary profusion of public money—the national debt—balance of trade—finances—places—pensions—state of the representation—addresses—the present war—alarm—state-trials—negotiations for peace—confidence in ministers—exertions made in the cause of liberty—innovation—origin and intent of government—discretionary power in representatives—universal representation—taxation—borough-holders—education—state-lotteries—criminal code—capital punishments—charitable institutions—game laws—liberty of speech—army—barracks—power of the crown—aristocracy—&c.' So many topics cannot be very profoundly examined in a mere pamphlet. Most of the articles, indeed, are very slightly mentioned, and we have no regular or complete discussion of any of them. The author's chief object is to censure the conduct of the present ministers; but the arguments adduced by him are such as have frequently been urged by intelligent writers. If they are repeated, it ought to be with a force and dignity which might challenge attention.

*A Chapter to the English Multitude. By one of the People. 8vo. 1s. Symonds. 1798.*

This author directs his powers against *equality*, and proves that there is no such thing in nature as equality to be found in the heavenly bodies, or in the bodies, tempers or dispositions, wisdom or folly, of men. 'Equality, in short, is a phantom of the brain,' and principally, in our opinion, in the brain of this author; for who ever answered the following questions, which he puts with an air of triumph, in any other way than he would? 'Is there no difference between a sour crab, and the delicious flavour of a pineapple? Yet they are both called, in common language, apples. Are not herbs, plants, bushes, and trees, some higher than others? Do they not all differ in what they produce? Is there not a much greater quantity of common and ordinary fruits than of those which have the most exquisite flavour? &c.' Such of our readers as wish to have very convincing proof of points concerning which no rational creature ever entertained a doubt, will be highly pleased with the greater part of this pamphlet, and will find their patriotism invigorated by the consideration, that nature was such an enemy to equality as to give us more apples than peaches!

*A Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, &c. &c. &c. shewing the Necessity and Facility of continuing the War; with a few seasonable Hints to Mr. Fox, and his Friends: by a Clergyman of the Church of England. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1797.*

The worthy minister of the church, who addresses this epistle to the first minister of state, offers advice which is palpably unnecessary, as Mr. Pitt needs no *stimulus* to urge him to a continuance of the war. It is not requisite that a clergyman should so far de-



part from the decorum of his station, as to encourage the effervescence of inordinate passions, and give his sanction to the virulence of national animosity. He 'judged it,' however, 'not unbecoming a person of his station and privacy to attempt to rectify the public opinion, which they' [*the leaders of opposition*] 'industriously endeavour to pervert.' But he should first have proved, that they have in any degree *perverted* the opinion of the public. The *perversion*, in fact, has arisen from another quarter; and it has been attended with a success which we shall long have reason to deplore.

The writer deprecates any pacification except such as Mr. Pitt may conclude; and he is so far from wishing to accelerate the return of peace, that he would prefer a naval war to that deplorable event, on pretence of the insecurity of Great-Britain while France retains the power of annoyance.

'In case of peace we must reduce our naval and military establishments, else where are its advantages? We must dismantle our navy, dismiss our brave seamen, elated with victory and rewarded with spoil. The high and martial spirit of the nation now existing in its full vigour, vigilant, and fired with indignation at the daring and insulting foe, must be disappointed of its object (the security of these kingdoms) and suffered to dwindle into a languid and fatal security. We must sit grumbling over the expences of a war, no one object of which shall we have effectually obtained. In the mean time the factious here would gather strength and be assisted by the power of France, now irresistible by reason of her conquests on the continent. Her greatness and success would be very improperly attributed to the excellence of her government, And such an opinion prevailing there and co-operating with a similar persuasion among certain persons here, would be a dreadful instrument in the enemy's hand. It would possess the power which Archimedes ascribed to his imaginary lever. It would shake the world from that central course which the God of Nature and of order hath ordained, into the incalculable eccentricity of one of those comets which appears but once in six or seven hundred years. We should, together with all Europe, be irresistibly drawn into the vortex of revolutionary confusion, and universal anarchy.'

P. 21.

The advantages of a naval war he thus states, in a tone of confident assertion.

'How much better is it then to keep our force together, to preserve it entire, and to persevere in a naval war, till the directory sue to us for peace, and beg it as a boon. France must do so in time; and, in the mean while, we have nothing to fear, and every thing to hope for, nothing to lose, and every thing to gain from the vigorous prosecution of a naval war. We are strengthening our navy and crippling theirs: we are taking their ships and

faster than they can build them : we are annihilating their commerce, and increasing our own. France can never become a rich commercial nation without shipping, and she never can have a ship at sea whilst at war with Great Britain. The expence of such a war will not be very great, comparatively speaking, and its advantages innumerable.' P. 25.

The 'seasonable hints' mentioned in the title-page consist of cautions to Mr. Fox, the duke of Bedford, and other adversaries of the ministry, against a prosecution of schemes which may terminate in their ruin ; and the author does not scruple to represent the 'lord of Woburn' as following the example of the infamous duke of Orleans. Such is the candour of this reverend writer !

*A Letter to the Right Hon. William Pitt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, &c. By a Country Clergyman. 8vo. 1s. J. Bell. 1798.*

This pamphleteer affects humour and pleasantry ; and, from his mode of writing, it is not indisputably clear whether his advice was seriously or jocularly intended. We are inclined to think that a vein of irony pervades the piece ; but it may be alleged, on the other hand, that the motto (' Our letter shews to you much more than jest'), and some strong passages, favour the idea of a real intention of abetting the cause of the ministry.

The clergyman opens his 'little budget' for the good of his country ; and, having mentioned the expediency of taxing silk stockings, and other articles of fashionable dress and ornament, he adds,

' Masters of club or of assembly rooms under whatever denomination, proprietors of billiard tables in town or country, exhibitors of wax-work, and furcapt jackalls of Exeter-Change or any less central repository, sturdy varlets, who should be shouldering a musket, or wheeling upon a charger, ought to pay pretty highly for cajoling the curiosity of mankind, and fattening upon the credulity of bumpkins, who stand and stare at any whimsical figure in the streets, though such countenances in general are but a treacherous security for their owners honesty :—all these might be severally taxed ; and as some of the above-mentioned worthies pass a sort of Scythian life, the collectors should be pretty frequent in their visits, and positive in their demands, lest the return which they make be a "non est inventus." These I would class among minor taxes ; to which family might be referred the glass-work of hot-houses, green-houses, bell and hand glasses, cucumber frames, and envelopes of prints ; all ornamental and cut glass ; all carpets and tapestry of foreign manufacture ; the coxcomical apparatus of high-glazed, wire-woven, and hot-pressed paper ; musical instruments, lessons, songs, oratorios, and all vocal instrumental compositions ; together with statues, busts, tablets, clocks, and chimney-pieces of marble.' P. 28.

He then bestows some varnish on the public character of Mr. Pitt, and quaintly concludes,

‘ Farewell, young man! May the God of our fathers be with thee, and give thee favour in the sight of thy king!’ p. 38.

*The Consequences of a French Invasion considered as Motives to Union and Exertion: in an Address to the Parishioners of Woolwich, on occasion of their Meeting to form an Armed Association.* By G. A. Thomas, A. M. &c. 12mo. 4d. Rivingtons. 1798.

The first sentence of this address is not altogether well-founded.

‘ Whilst we cannot but lament the continuance of a contest so truly calamitous, as to reduce us to the present awful crisis, we derive no small consolation from reflecting, that we have neither been the aggressors in the war, nor have omitted any proper means to bring it to a conclusion.’ p. 3.

In its progress, the writer, though his aim is good, indulges in idle declamation; and the last sentence is a curious specimen of inaccurate composition.

‘ If, armed with the panoply of justice, in defending our country from this long threatened scheme of invasion, we bring forth our patriotic and parochial auxiliaries with union, dexterity, energy, and dispatch, we may bid such a defiance to our enemies, as will deter them from the desperate project of invading a free, united, loyal, and spirited people, or overwhelm them with irretrievable confusion and defeat.’ p. 26.

It is a species of anti-climax to sink from *patriotic* to *parochial*, particularly after the pompous expressions, ‘ armed with the panoply of justice:’ it is improper to speak of *invading a people*, instead of *a kingdom or a country*; and the epithet *irretrievable* is erroneously used; for it is only applicable to what we cannot regain or retrieve (*retrouver*), not to that from which we are desirous of rescuing ourselves.

*Our Good Old Castle on the Rock: or Union the one Thing needful. Addressed to the People of England.* 12mo. 3d. Wright, 1798.

This short address is divided into four sections. The heads are, ‘ the common cause’—‘ our good old castle on the rock’—‘ the castle in danger’—‘ the castle preserved.’ The common cause is represented as ‘ the cause of all nations;’ but the castle refers to Great-Britain alone; and the rescue of it from danger, it is affirmed, can only be expected from union. The pamphlet is seasonable, and may be useful.

*An Address to the British Forces by Sea and Land, armed to resist the threatened French Invasion.* 8vo. 2d. Bush, at Yarmouth. 1798.

We cannot say that this pamphlet is well written; but its object

will atone for a deficiency in that respect. It terminates with a patriotic song.

## L A W.

*The Trial of James O'Coigly (otherwise called James Quigley, otherwise called James John Fivey), Arthur O'Connor, Esq. John Binns, John Allen, and Jeremiah Leary, for High Treason, under a special Commission, at Maidstone, in Kent, on the 21st and 22d Days of May, 1798. Taken in Short-Hand, by Joseph Gurney. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Gurney. 1798.*

The importance of these trials merited a copious account; but some parts of this volume might have been spared; and the examinations of the witnesses might have been given with equal effect in a smaller compass. The report, however, upon the whole, appears to be accurate.

*The Trial at large of Arthur O'Connor, Esq. John Binns, John Allen, Jeremiah Leary, and James Coigley, for High Treason, before Judge Buller, &c. under a special Commission, at Maidstone, in the County of Kent. Containing Memoirs of the Life of Arthur O'Connor, Esq. &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Ridgway. 1798.*

This account is much less comprehensive than that which Mr. Gurney has published; and we have reason to think that the statement is less correct. The memoirs prefixed are very short and imperfect.

## A G R I C U L T U R E.

*A Practical Treatise on Peat Moss, considered as in its natural State fitted for affording Fuel, or as susceptible of being converted into Mold, with full Directions for converting it, and cultivating it as a Soil. By James Anderson, L. L. D. F. R. S. &c. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Chapman.*

Dr. Anderson has collected, with great labour, a variety of facts respecting peat-moss. This remarkable substance covers, in the north of England and in Scotland, vast tracts of land, and seems to have surmounted or overturned trees of considerable magnitude. It is a solid, uniform, compact body, absorbing water, like clay, and, like this earth, obstinately resisting its passage. When cut, it is granulated and mucous, and sometimes scaly, like the hop, when compressed for sale. Its colour is a mixture of red and brown; but, when exposed to the air, it is of a darker hue. In this moss, when *quick*, no animal resides. The wood, at its bottom, is in part decayed, but is more inflammable than in its recent state. Oak suffers more than fir; and the changes in the latter are singular: the lateral fibres only are destroyed, the longitudinal ones admitting an easy separation, and, when minutely divided, being

flexible and tough. These fibres are used as candles, and the flexible ones as ropes, which, when worn, will ultimately be useful as torches. Peat-moss, when dried, burns with a clear, bright flame, leaving ashes white and light as the finest down; its charcoal is hard, burns with a vivid flame, and is wholly consumed. It is sometimes found at the bottom of the sea; and, in the island of South-Uist, it lies on a bed of granite. On the surface of quick moss, no vegetable grows; though sometimes, when it is overcharged with water, aquatic plants will flourish in the water.

The theories which have been formed to account for this production, are discussed at some length; and our author suggests, in his Postscript, the probability of its being a vegetable substance. Indeed, little doubt can remain of its being a vegetable; and we always considered it as such.

Dr. Anderson's directions for reclaiming mosses are very judicious. They chiefly consist in draining and compressing. The first is the common practice, which he directs with more skill and judgment than we have observed in any other work. The great improvement consists in pressure, and we could wish that this might be tried on a large scale, as, at present, it rests on little more than probability.

*The Orchardist: or, a System of Close Pruning and Medication, for establishing the Science of Orcharding, as patronized by the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. By Tho. Skip Dyot Bucknall, Esq. Extracted from the Xth, XIth, XIIth, and XIVth Vols. of the Society's Transactions, with Additions. 8vo. 3s. Nicol. 1797.*

The management of an orchard is a business of some importance; and the advice here given may improve that department. But, to avoid repetition, we forbear to mention Mr. Bucknall's directions, as those which are most material have been already noticed in our accounts of different volumes of the Transactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce\*.

*An Introduction to the Knowledge and Practice of Gardening, by Charles Marshall, &c. 12mo. 5s. Bound. Rivingtons.*

It is proper that those who attend to gardening should be acquainted with the principles, as well as with the modes of practice which are generally employed. The work before us will teach the latter with some correctness; but the former are by no means laid down in so clear and accurate a manner as is necessary.

The poetical and other extracts which constitute the section on the 'Praise of Gardening,' might have been totally omitted without any disadvantage; and room would thus have been afforded for other articles that are not noticed in any part of the work.

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. IX. p. 445; Vol. XIII. p. 173; and Vol. XIX. p. 414.

On the formation of a garden, and on the proper methods of cultivating it, the writer has given some judicious hints and directions. His remarks on the quantity of seed, and manner of sowing, are those which follow.

The quantity of seed sown, is a thing to be attended to with some exactness. Small seeds go a great way, and require a careful hand to distribute them; for though sowing a little too much be a trifle as to the value of seeds, yet to have them come up crowding thick is an evil. To sow evenly as to quantity, is an object of practice worthy of care, as it secures a better crop, and more easily managed in the thinning. On the whole, however, it is better to sow rather thick than thin, especially if the seed is suspected; and poor land will require more seed than rich.

It is not generally advisable to sow several sorts of seed on the same spot, as some persons are accustomed to do. The gardeners about London follow the practice; but profit is their object, and not neatness or propriety. On the same piece, they sow radishes, lettuces, and carrots: the radishes are drawn young for the table, the lettuces to plant out, and a sufficient crop of carrots is left, for carrots should not be very near to grow big; this is as reasonable a combination as any that is made; but still, if not short of ground, each kind separate would be best. In defence of this mode of culture, it is said, if one crop fails, the others may do, and there is no loss of ground or time; and if they all succeed, they do very well. Radishes and spinach are commonly sown together by the common gardeners, and many manoeuvres of inter-cropping are made by them as sowing, or planting between rows of vegetables that are wide asunder, or presently to come off, or in the alleys of things cultivated on beds. But this crowding mode of gardening will not be imitated by private families, except there is a want of ground to bring in a proper succession of crops.

Some little things of this sort, however, may be done; as, suppose a piece for horse-radish be new planted, it may be top-cropped with radishes or spinach, &c. or if a piece of potatoes be planted wide, a bean may be put in between each set, in every, or every other row; a thin crop of onions upon new asparagus beds is a common practice, drawing them young from about the plants. But these are still permissions, and are intended only as hints.

P. 82.

Under the heads 'Nursery, Grafting, Planting, Shrubberies, Pruning, and Hot-Beds,' the reader will find useful information, though the author sometimes depends too much upon the effects of the *saline* and *nitrous* properties of the earth. But, as he appears to be little acquainted with chemistry, we do not wonder at such mistakes.

The art of raising cucumbers in winter by a particular construction of frame, is curious; but we must refer to the work for the account of it.

Though we do not think that Mr. Marshall has ably explained the principles of horticulture, his observations on the modes of cultivating different articles deserve the attention of the inexperienced gardener.

## M E D I C I N E.

*An Inquiry into the Nature and Cause of Fever, more especially the Intermitting: containing an Investigation into the Nature of Miasmata, and the Manner of its Action upon the Human Body.* 8vo. 2s. Mudie and Son, Edinburgh.

The hypothesis of intermittent fever which is here offered to the public, is accompanied with a curious intimation. The discovery, it is said, may be important, and yet the discoverer may be entitled to little praise. The author adds, that he has suffered much from having made a *discovery* which was in itself so obvious. Easy as the task was, however, we are not *here* to expect a full communication of the particulars; we are only *now* to be presented with a general outline, which is *hereafter* to be filled up.

In short, the discovery is this. The writer entertains an idea that the breathing of impure air induces an accumulation of blood about the heart and lungs, and that this is the exciting or the more immediate cause of all the symptoms of the cold fit. Then (continues the author), from the irritation of that very important part of the vascular system, the blood is violently driven off again into circulation; and this (he says) we call the more immediate cause of all the symptoms of the hot fit. After so *luminous* an explanation of two of the stages of the intermittent fever, that of the third, it may be expected, will be equally clear. Here it is—The increased action of the arteries forces the blood towards the surface of the body, and its finer parts through the exhaling vessels of the skin.

This is the substance of our author's doctrine of intermittent fever: but we cannot perceive it to be better founded or more entitled to the attention of the practitioner, than many others that have had their day; nor do we more admire the numerous 'little doctrines in physiology,' by which the writer has endeavoured to illustrate his subject. The efforts of a vigorous or comprehensive mind do not appear in the Inquiry.

*Observations on apparent Death from Drowning, Suffocation, &c. with an Account of the Means to be employed for Recovery. Drawn up at the Desire of the Northamptonshire Preservative Society: by James Curry, M. D. &c.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson.

Few institutions are more beneficial than those which have inculcated proper plans for the restoration of life, when apparently destroyed. These remarks were produced at the request of a society of this kind, and for the following reasons. From the minutes of the society it became obvious,

'That favourable opportunities of recovery had been sometimes lost, owing to want of information in the persons present, with regard to the means that ought to be employed; while the distance from medical aid was so great, as to render every exertion unsuccessful by the time that such assistance could be procured. But although medical men are, from the nature of their studies and profession, particularly qualified for being useful on such occasions, it by no means follows that they are exclusively so; on the contrary, repeated experience has shewn, that intelligent persons, of every description, may readily acquire sufficient information upon the subject, to render them the happy instruments of recovery. It is chiefly with a view to the instruction of such persons, that these observations have been drawn up, and this circumstance must apologize, if any apology be necessary, for the studied rejection of medical words and phrases, and the preference given to such terms as are familiar to the generality of readers.' p. vi.

However laudable this design may be, we cannot find that Dr Curry has made any important additions to the advice given by former writers; and the theoretical part of the pamphlet would have been more satisfactory if he had been fully acquainted with the doctrine of airs, as delivered by M. Lavoisier. The general conclusion, however, which is drawn from the reasoning, appears to be just. It is this—

'That in every case of apparent death, the instituting an artificial breathing, by assiduously inflating the lungs with fresh air, is one of the first and most necessary measures to be taken for recovery.' p. 38.

The treatment most suitable to each case of suspended respiration, is not inaccurately described; and the Appendix well explains the nature of the means which ought to be pursued when poisonous substances have been taken.

### NATURAL PHILOSOPHY.

*An Account of some remarkable Discoveries in the Production of Artificial Cold, with Experiments on the Congelation of Quicksilver in England, &c. &c. By Richard Walker. 8vo. 3s 6d. sewed. Rivingtons.*

These papers, having appeared in the Philosophical Transactions, have been fully considered in our progressive volumes; and we do not find any remarkable addition, besides the introduction and recapitulation.

The introduction contains a vague account of some former experiments connected with Mr. Walker's subject. The great philosophical problem is not properly noticed—we mean the singularity, that bodies, which, like the mineral acids, contain so much absolute heat, should, in liquefying ice, so greedily attract heat from surrounding bodies. The view taken of it is merely the change of



capacity for heat, in the altered form of the ice, when it becomes fluid: but, if this were the whole of the problem, the attraction for heat should be the same, with whatever fluid the ice is thawed. The excess of cold produced by dissolving Glauber's salts in mineral acids, above what arises from their solution in water; might, we think, have suggested a more extensive view.

The discovery of the means of producing cold, without the assistance of ice, is undoubtedly valuable; yet, when the great care and the numerous requisite precautions are considered, we fear that it will not be found easily practicable in a hot climate. Mr. Walker, indeed, seems to estimate its importance, and his own merit, at too high a rate.

Keeping some of Mr. Walker's experiments in our view, we may remark, that, in *our* thermometer, salt and snow, just in a melting state, sink the mercury *exactly* to zero; and ice, just melting, *exactly* to  $32^{\circ}$ ; and some of the superior parts of the scale we have tried, by adding water of different heats to melting ice, so as to answer to the degrees which the best philosophers have found in their instruments. We therefore suspect that our author's trials with salt and snow were not accurately made. On another occasion, he does not recollect an experiment of M. de la Place, who put, at the bottom of a vessel filled with pounded ice, a red-hot cube of iron; which, of course, melted the nearest ice; but the liquefaction extended a very little way, and the pounded ice, above and through the whole of the upper part of the vessel, was compacted by the frozen vapour.

*The Philosophy of Chemistry, or fundamental Truths of modern Chemical Science, arranged in a new Order; by A. F. Fourcroy. Translated from the French of the Second Edition; signed by the Author. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Johnson.*

We are pleased to see chemistry assume so correct and so philosophical a form; philosophical, not from a theory pervading the several facts, but from an accurate comprehensive view of the facts themselves. If it had been attempted on the former plan, the destruction of the theory would have been fatal to the whole. At present, should the conversion of water into its supposed component parts be disproved, it will do little more than change the language: the different analyses would still remain. We do not, however, suppose that the destruction of this important part of the system is approaching. The late attempts have only shown it to be still more securely founded, than it was supposed to be; and it may always continue at least a part—probably a focus from which a variety of new discoveries may emanate—of our chemical system.

We strongly recommend the present work to the English authors, who appear often at our bar, shamefully ignorant of the present state of chemistry. It would also be an useful exercise to connect the 'application of the results' with the subject of the chapter. We shall not analyse this work, as it contains only known facts, unit-

ed in a systematic view. We shall merely extract a curious passage relating to the conversion of vegetable into animal matter.

‘Accordingly, the conversion of vegetable into animal matter, which consists only in the fixation or addition of azot, must be considered as the principal phenomenon of animalization: this alone explains it’s chief mysteries; and when once we are perfectly acquainted with the mechanism of this addition of azot, most of the functions of the animal economy, which effect it, or depend on it, will become equally known.

‘What we already know of the subject is confined to the following considerations. The phenomenon is not so much owing to the fixation of a new quantity of azot, as to the subtraction of other principles, which increase it’s proportion. In respiration the blood exhales a large hydrogen, and of carbon, either simply dissolved in hydrogen gas, or converted into the state of carbonic acid by the very act of circulation, and in the vascular system, according to some modern philosophers. In the cavities of the bronchia, during the act of respiration, and by the instrumentality of this act, the hydrogen forms water, which exhales in expiration. A portion of oxygen appears at the same time to become fixed in the pulmonary blood, and, circulating with this fluid through the vessels, gradually combines with the carbon, so as to form that carbonic acid, which is extricated from the venous blood in the lungs. It is easy to conceive, that, by thus disengaging a large quantity of hydrogen and carbon, respiration must necessarily augment the proportion of azot. The study of the mechanism of the other functions, which remains to be pursued, will undoubtedly lead to new discoveries, still more important than the preceding: what has been performed within a few years naturally prompts us to imagine, that still more will be done. The analogy of action which has been discovered between digestion, respiration, circulation, and insensible perspiration, has begun to establish on new views, more solid than were heretofore possessed, a system of animal physics, which promises an abundant harvest of discoveries and improvements. Unquestionably it will be in pursuing the phenomena of digestion and growth in young animals, that an edifice equally novel and solid will be erected on these foundations. Every thing is ready for this grand work; several philosophers pursue this unbeaten path of experience; fresh ardour, springing from these new conceptions, animates those who are engaged in this branch of physics; and the track they have just begun to explore appears such as must lead them to more precise and accurate results, than any that have hitherto been advanced on the functions which constitute animal life.’

p. 175.

This essay is included in Mr. Heron’s translation of Fourcroy’s *Elements* \*; but we preferred a review of it in this separate and more elegant form.

\* See p. 103.

## RELIGION.

*The Integrity and Excellence of Scripture. A Vindication of the much-controverted Passages, Deut. vii. 2. 3. and—xx. 16. 17. whereby the Justness of the Commands they enjoin are incontrovertibly proved, and, consequently, the Objections of Thomas Paine and Dr. Geddes completely refuted. By George Benjoin. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1797.*

The command of God to the Israelites to extirpate the seven nations of Canaan, has been the subject of much declamation among unbelievers; and the Supreme Being has been accused of unnecessary cruelty. It is the object of this publication to vindicate the Creator, and to correct the mistaken notions of many Christians. The substance of the explanatory part we shall give in the author's words.

'The original he literally translates; and proves, that the words, Deut. vii. 2. commonly translated—Thou shalt "utterly destroy them," literally mean—thou shalt *dispel* (expulse, disperse) *them*.—that the words translated—"nor shew mercy unto them," literally mean—*nor shew them any FAVOUR*.—That the words, Deut. xx. 16. translated "Thou shalt save alive nothing that breatheth," literally mean—*Thou shalt not SUPPORT any thing living*. That the expression in Deut. xx. 17.—"Thou shalt utterly destroy them," means, *Thou shalt DISPEL them ALL.*' P. 77:

The verb סח does not mean literally to *dispel*; though, in these passages, to *expel* would convey the meaning better than to *destroy*. The real import of the word is to *separate*, to *devote*; and, in this case, the Canaanites were to be so separated, that no social intercourse should subsist between them and the Israelites. Consequently, if the former resolved to continue in the country, they subjected themselves to all the horrors of war. The country, they knew, was promised to Abraham's descendants, who were coming to take possession of it.

They resolved, however, to resist the latter; and their pertinacity, in the opinion of Mr. Benjoin, merited the severest punishment.

This writer treats Dr. Geddes with illiberality, in coupling him with Thomas Paine; an insult scarcely pardonable in the republic of letters. One is an unbeliever; the other is not only a believer, but has taken great pains to interpret the scriptures.

*A Sermon preached at the Parish Church of St. Michael, Queenhithe, London, on Wednesday, March 7, 1798; being the Day appointed for a General Fast; and at Layton, Essex, the Sunday following. By the Rev. John Wight Wickes, M. A. &c. Published by Request. 4to. 1s. 6d. Hatchard. 1798.*

'The consideration of God's former kindness to us should teach

us fidelity to our country, and loyalty to our king—to despise the schemes of innovators, and pray for the preservation and welfare of our constitution.

‘The misery consequent upon innovation has generally exceeded all that the boldest projector at first designed, or could have anticipated; riot, confusion, and bloodshed ensue—property becomes the sport of faction—safety nowhere to be found—neither youth, nor age, nor sex, is free from the horrid barbarities of assailants—Atheism erects her standard—and every thing sacred and divine is distorted, prophaned, and blasphemed.’ P. 12.

This was the language of Pagans against Christianity. Innovation is good or evil according to previous circumstances. It is good when it tends to introduce truth in the room of falsehood; it is evil when it aims at the substitution of falsehood for truth.

‘Is it not more prudent, will it not be more wise, to be patient under a known and temporary hardship, rather than foolishly draw upon ourselves the horrors of an invasion, by secret conspiracies, disloyalty to the best of monarchs, and injudicious ill-founded complaints against the ruling powers?’ P. 14.

Loyalty is as much a point of duty as of wisdom or prudence. Our sovereign is rather a king than a monarch. The worst of tyrants have, during life, been styled the best of monarchs, and the best of monarchs have been coldly received by their subjects. The two sisters who could scarcely find terms sufficiently expressive of their love to the monarch, were traitors to him: the third spoke the language of simplicity and truth;

“I love your majesty

“According to my bond; nor more nor less.”

Her love was proved by deeds, not by words. Flattery, or even the appearance of flattery, ought not to show itself in the pulpit.

*A Sermon preached at the Abbey Church of St. Peter, Westminster, before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, on Wednesday, March 7th, 1798, being the Day appointed for a General Fast. By Follitt, Lord Bishop of Bristol. 4to. 2s. Faulder. 1798.*

This discourse contains trite remarks on the benefits of religion and the dangerous consequences of infidelity. At the close of it the preacher seems to be inflamed; and his language more resembles that of a general at the head of his troops, than that of a Christian pastor in the midst of his flock. He forgets that the ‘whole armour of God’ is described by St. Paul as proper only for warfare against spiritual enemies.

*La Voix du Patriotisme dans la Circonſtance préſente; par F. Prévost, Miniſtre Anglican, &c.*

*The Voice of Patriotism at the preſent Criſis. Small 8vo. 1s. 6d.*  
De Boſſe. 1798.

This is a ſermon which has been preached both to a French and a Swiſs congregation in our metropolis. The preacher is a native of Switzerland; and the late miſfortunes of his countrymen are not unmentioned in his diſcourſe. The text involves a prophecy of Iſaiah, relative to the reſtoration of the proſperity of Jeruſalem; and it is conſidered as applicable to the preſent times, and particularly to the Britiſh nation.

Our Jeruſalem (ſays M. Prévost) is indeed under ſome affliction; but ſhe is not deſtitute of conſolation or reſource. A happy change may reaſonably be expected for her. We behold her numerous and invincible fleets riding in triumph upon all ſeas, and ſtriking terror into the enemies of her glory. We behold her brave and loyal troops defending her walls and protecting her ſhores. We view her ſovereign and his miniſters watching as guardian angels over her ſafety—a king who unites wiſdom with piety, and tempers courage with humanity and virtue—able and intrepid miniſters, who, in a ſtormy ſeaſon, conduct with ſkill and prudence the agitated veſſel of the ſtate. We obſerve her children aſſembled around her, contributing their ſtores to her relief, and prepared to ſacrifice their lives in her ſervice. With confidence, therefore, the animating words of the prophet may be addreſſed to her. ‘Arise, O Jeruſalem!’ do not give way to inquietude and alarm; but let thy courage revive. ‘Arise, Jeruſalem, and ſhine! for thy light approaches, and the glory of Jehovah riſes upon thee.’ P. 4.

Though we are diſguſted at the flattery which a part of this tranſlated quotation exhibits, we wiſh, as eagerly as the Helvetic preacher, for the accompliſhment of the prophecy in his mode of application.

There are ſome pleaſing traits of eloquence in this ſermon; and it is well adapted to exiſting circumſtances.

*A View of the Nature and Deſign of Public Faſts; occaſioned by Peter Pindar's Satire on Faſts; in a Sermon, delivered at Aſh, the Seventh of March, 1798, with Additions. By N. Niſbett, A. M. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1798.*

The effuſions of a ſatirical poet againſt modern faſts have given riſe to ſome judicious remarks in ſupport of them; but the poet and the preacher are equally removed from the true point of view in which they ought to be conſidered. It is unneceſſary to ſay any thing of the ſatiriſt. If the object of the faſt be merely to call down the deſtruction of heaven on our fellow-creatures, it can be vindicated only by thoſe men whoſe religion and patriotiſm are ground-

ed equally on the most degrading self-interest. But it is requisite that the preacher should justify the use of fasts on the principles of that religion which it is his duty to teach. We observe, however, that his scriptural quotations are all taken from the Old Testament. Was it because he found the words of Christ and the apostles unsuitable to his purpose? We wish him to re-consider his subject; and we have no doubt that, if fasts are to be justified on Christian principles, he will be able to inculcate, from the four gospels, some sentiments which may deserve the particular attention of Christians.

Though we do not agree with Mr. Nisbett in the general scope of his argument, we were pleased with some of his observations.

‘To make men sensible of their own imbecility, and of the impropriety of this self-confidence, they are taught by experience that the race is not always to the swift, nor the battle to the strong, and that there is an invisible and controlling power which sometimes directs events, contrary to all human probabilities. There has been, it is to be feared, but too much of this vain confidence, even among ourselves. It is within the memory of many, that in the American war, when intoxicated with an imagination of the greatness of our strength, we talked of absolute, unconditional submission to our power, and that with a handful of men we could reduce them to it; and, perhaps, there has been but too great a propensity to boasting in the present unhappy contest. In the former case, the event is known, and may not God have permitted the present triumph of our adversaries, to humble our pride, and to bring us to a due sense of our dependence upon him?’ P. 12.

In another place he says—

‘If our prayers were pious imprecations for the destruction of our enemies, I have no hesitation in asserting, that both religion and humanity would forbid the practice.’ P. 14.

This sentiment is afterwards more strongly enforced:

‘If a single sentiment, encouraging the exercise of the malevolent passions, runs through our public devotions, on those occasions (which, by the way, I do not believe), it hath no sanction from the author of our religion; and, like the dead fly in the apothecaries’ ointment, will spoil the whole composition.’ P. 15.

*Public Worship a Social Duty; a Sermon, preached on the Occasion of the Author's Collation to a Prebend in the Cathedral Church of Lichfield, on Sunday, August 6, 1797, and designed as a friendly Exhortation to the higher Ranks of Society in Great Britain. By G. A. Thomas, M. A. &c. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons. 1797.*

‘Happily for this nation, its pious governor, with his royal consort, though encumbered with the cares of state, and encircled with the splendors of a court, are truly the nursing father and nursing mother of our pure reformed church, and may, each, in the language

of the monarch of Israel, exclaim, 'Lord, I have loved the habitation of thy house, and the place where thine honour dwelleth !'  
P. 34.

This praise in the present times may be contrasted with an account of some years in the last century.

'We cannot forget the period, so memorable in the history of this country, when the impious hand of a daring usurper had wrested the sceptre from the hands of his lawful sovereign; had proscribed every decent exterior of religion, and, with sacrilegious violence, had plundered and defaced every monument of piety;—when even this venerable fabrie, in which we are now assembled, escaped not the desolating rage of fanatic rancor;—it was then that the constancy of Christian faith shone conspicuous amidst the wreck of our holy establishment.' P. 28.

The preacher unfortunately forgets that very few men more punctually observed the exteriors of religion than that usurper. From these extracts the reader may perceive that the arguments for social worship are not wholly collected from the scripture, and that applications are made to present times and political opinions, inconsistent with the true spirit of the discourse. Indeed the sermon begins inauspiciously.

'It is a maxim founded in truth, and confirmed by experience, that religion is the firmest basis of civil government.' P. 5.

So thought the ancient Romans; and it formed the strongest argument in the senate for retaining idolatry, and resisting the introduction of Christianity. But surely very little attention is necessary to shew the fallacy of this pretended maxim. Religion, whether good or bad, is the firmest basis, says our preacher; but he should recollect that the most stable government in the world, that of China, has existed independently of a religious establishment. The duty of public worship is to be founded on scriptural principles; and the commotions in France, and domestic factions, have no concern with the question.

## M A T H E M A T I C S.

*Elements of Geometry; containing the First Six Books of Euclid, with Two Books on the Geometry of Solids. To which are added, Elements of Plane and Spherical Trigonometry. By John Playfair, F. R. S. Edin. &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Robinsons.*

The chief difference between this publication and Simson's edition of Euclid, is in the fifth book, in which the scientific editor prefers the algebraical to the geometrical mode of demonstration. The doctrine of proportion, as laid down by Euclid, remains; and due credit is given to his theory, which, from the

apparent difficulty of comprehending his demonstrations, many students have been permitted by their teachers to neglect. We are diffident of our own judgment, when it varies from that of so excellent a geometrician as Dr. Playfair; and we are sensible of the ease with which the nature of proportion may be explained in algebraical terms: but, whether it be prejudice in favour of the old school, or a sentiment founded in reason from considering Euclid's *Elements* as a geometrical work, and as one that requires geometrical demonstrations, we felt some degree of uneasiness at seeing the fifth book despoiled of its figures. We should, therefore, have recommended the retention of Euclid's demonstrations and figures, to which the present algebraical demonstrations might have been, with great propriety, subjoined, as they would not only by themselves instruct the student in the doctrine of proportion, but would enable him to overcome every difficulty which the original demonstrations are supposed to involve.

The first and third definitions of the first book are altered. They are stumbling-blocks to learners; and we do not see any great improvement in the alteration. Def. 1. 'A point is that which has position but not magnitude.' Def. 3. 'Lines which cannot coincide in two points without coinciding altogether are called straight lines.' We must refer the learner to the sight or touch; and then it will not be difficult to explain to him the meaning of point and line.

The data are omitted in this edition; and we read with pleasure the editor's reasons, particularly that he reserves for them a place in his *Geometrical Analysis*, which he has long meditated, and which will be, without doubt, a treasure to the mathematical world.

In the notes we find some judicious remarks; and the work, though in our opinion capable of improvement, will be found very useful to all who are entering upon a course of mathematical studies.

*An Appendix to the Principles of Algebra, by Francis Masereu, Esq. F. R. S. Curfitor Baron of his Majesty's Court of Exchequer. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.*

This is an appendix to Mr. Frend's *Principles of Algebra*; and it is larger than the work itself. The baron and Mr. Frend agree in exploding the doctrine of negative quantities from their system; and they assert that it is useless and absurd to consider a number as less than nothing. With them the sign *minus* always means that you must subtract the number before which it stands from some other number; and consequently, if no other number, or a less number, be connected with it, they desist from their operations, and consider the reasoning adopted by some eminent mathematicians on these negative terms as so many paralogisms.

The two rules commonly attributed to Cardan, are properly restored by the baron to the true inventors; namely, to Scipio Fer-



reus for the case  $x^3 + bx = c$ , and to Nicholas Tartaglia for the case  $x^3 - bx = c$ . They are investigated in this work both analytically and synthetically.

Not only equations of the third order, but also those of the fourth, are examined; and, after a complete investigation of the method adopted by Luigi Ferrari for the solution of certain forms in the fourth order, the baron makes a comparison between the processes necessary according to this method and Raphson's mode of approximation, concluding with a decisive preference (in which we agree with this acute reasoner) of the latter mode.

At the close of the volume are remarks on an error in Clairaut's reasoning with regard to negative quantities. That algebraist affirms, that  $a - b$  multiplied into  $c - d$ , will produce  $ac - bc - ad + bd$ , which is indeed admitted. Hence, he says, this product will be true in all cases, whatever may be the values of  $a$ , or  $c$ ; and it must be true when  $a$  and  $c$  are equal to nothing, in which case  $a - b$  and  $c - d$  become  $-b$  and  $-d$ . Consequently  $-b$  multiplied into  $-d$  will produce  $+bd$ . But the baron will not allow that  $a$  and  $c$  can be supposed equal to nothing; and it is incumbent on the students of this branch of the mathematics, to examine with attention the remarks of a person of such distinguished eminence in their science.

## PHILOLOGY.

*L'Art de parler et d'écrire correctement la Langue Française, ou Nouvelle Grammaire Raisonnée de cette Langue, à l'usage des Etrangers qui désirent d'en connoître à fond les Principes et le Génie. Par M. l'Abbé de Lévizac. A Londres.*

*The Art of speaking and writing the French Tongue correctly; or a new critical Grammar of that Language, for the Use of Foreigners who wish to be completely acquainted with its Principles and its Genius. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Dulau. 1797.*

We do not agree with the emigrant teacher to whom we are indebted, for this work, in thinking that the difficulty of learning to speak French well is greater than that which attends the acquisition of any other European language: but, though we are inclined to believe that he aggravates the difficulties of the study, to render his efforts for the removal of them the more conspicuous, we allow that the delicacies and refinements of the French tongue are less easily acquired than many persons suppose, who consider themselves as fully acquainted with it if they can develope the sense of a novel, or hold a desultory discourse without much perplexity or hesitation.

The present volume contains only the first part of the author's philological plan. It treats of grammar, properly so called.

The abbé begins with the noun; but he does not dwell long upon it. The article forms the next subject; and the places where

it ought to be used, and where it is unnecessary, are properly discriminated.

Some of his remarks concerning adjectives do not appear to us to be just. Instead of particularising every instance of this kind, we shall only refer to one. Vaugelas has recommended an omission of *de* between *quelque chose* and an adjective which is followed by the same preposition. The repetition of *de*, he says, would give a harshness to the sentence; and he therefore sanctions the phrase *quelque chose digne de sa naissance*. But, says M. de Lévizac, is harshness of sound a sufficient reason for giving way to a real fault? Certainly not; but the fact is, that no fault is committed. It does not follow, because *de* is usually introduced between *quelque chose* and an adjective (as, *quelque chose de nouveau*), that *quelque chose digne* is an erroneous phrase: on the contrary, it is more grammatically accurate than the ordinary phrase.

The abbé d'Olivet is quoted with approbation by our author, as controverting the propriety of the decisions of Vaugelas and the French academy, with regard to the use of the pronoun *soi* in a plural import. *Soi*, indeed, ought to be confined to a singular construction.

The observations of M. de Lévizac upon pronouns are for the most part just; and he has carefully examined the forms and the uses of the verb. In analysing this part of speech, and also on other occasions, he attacks the rules and the opinions of Holder and other grammarians, sometimes with decisive success.

He gives good rules for the use of the participle of past time, in those points concerning which the best writers differ. He treats of prepositions, conjunctions, &c. with perspicuity and precision; illustrates by examples the proper use of the figures of speech; and, to various errors of construction, applies a critical emendation.

*A New Italian Grammar, in English and Italian, on a Plan different from any hitherto published, &c. By Gaetano Ravizzotti. Small 8vo. 6s. Boards. Myers. 1797.*

Signor Ravizzotti alleges the insufficiency of former grammars of the Italian language for the purpose for which they were compiled; and this inadequacy (he says) 'arises partly from *deficiency*, and partly from *many things* in them having become *obsolete*.' There certainly is reason to complain of *deficiencies* in every Italian grammar; but, in the *recent* works of that kind, *few things* may be supposed to have become *obsolete*.

In treating of what he styles 'the *right regular* pronunciation,' the author omits a representation of the sound of *gn*, and refers to a good teacher for it: but he might easily have given an adequate idea of it by intimating, that *agnello* is pronounced *anyella*, the *y* being sounded as in our word *year*. He copiously, and in general not inaccurately, explains the uses and constructions of the different parts of speech; particularly the verb and the pronoun.

Where he speaks of the demonstrative pronouns, we were surprised at his remarking, that, 'for greater elegance, we say in Italian, *domattina, stasera, stanotte*, for this morning, to-night, or this evening, instead of *questa mattina*, &c.' He should rather have condemned those abbreviations as corrupt and improper, than have recommended them as elegant.

In the second division of his work, he offers 'grammatical observations on prose and poetry,' which the student may peruse with advantage. In the two following parts, he gives a multifarious vocabulary, a collection of complimentary and other phrases, some dialogues, and proverbs.

The fifth part consists of 'selected extracts of Italian poetry.' A sonnet written by Milton is here introduced, and we also observe one by Margaret of Valois; but it would have been better, we think, to have confined the extracts to the productions of natives of Italy. We may add, that the quotations are not well translated into English.

A mythological dictionary forms the sixth part; but it is too long for an appendage to a grammar. It is given both in Italian and English; as are also the two last divisions of the work, which are, an introduction to geography, and miscellaneous extracts in prose. Upon the whole, this performance, though in some respects too diffuse, and in others defective, may be recommended as very useful to the learner of the Italian language.

## P O E T R Y.

*The Sea-Side, a Poem, in a Series of familiar Epistles, from Mr. Simkin Slenderwit, summerising at Ramsgate, to his dear Mother in Town. Small Folio. 1797.*

Of the numerous imitators of Mr. Anstey's Bath Guide, we think Mr. Simkin Slenderwit not the least successful. He exhibits much humour and quaintness of observation, in a galloping kind of poetry suitable to the subject. His occasional inattention to the rhyme is reprehensible, as it arises more from negligence than from want of power.

Part of a morning scene at Ramsgate is thus sketched:

————— next morning we rose,  
Shav'd, dress'd, and both put on a good suit of clothes;  
Then went before breakfast, an hour, or more,  
Fresh air to inhale, on the sea-pickled shore.  
There we met half-cloth'd beaux, and fine ladies unlac'd,  
All to soufe for their health in the ocean in haste;  
O! what fidget and wriggle to get a machine,  
Such a bustle, dear mother, sure never was seen:  
"Miss Nally, are you ready?" "Yes ladies, this way."  
"Have you taken some towels?" "O, yes ma'am,  
come pray."

"I declare Mrs. Fish, I don't know what's the matter,  
 But I always dread vastly to plunge in the water:  
 The faculty tell me 'tis good for my nerves,  
 And sure no complaint such attention deserves:  
 Without nerves, one's unfit for life's gayer routine,  
 Without nerves, one in public should never be seen;  
 Strong nerves kill the vapours and vanquish the spleen:  
 For my nerves, then, my dear Mrs. Fish, I resort here,  
 And hope to return with the nerves of a porter."

"What a clatter 'bout nerves!" cries a Jetmy in  
 trowsers,

"'Tis distraction, *par tout*, to be bor'd with these soufers;  
 Because 'tis the fashion, I bathe every morning;  
 Besides, all day after it keeps me from yawning." P. 4.

A preference is given to Ramsgate over other bathing-places in  
 the following strain of irony:

'Let numbers to Scarb'rough each summer go down,  
 And boast that they travel a great way from town:  
 Let many to Weymouth with rapture repair,  
 So proud in the smile of the worthy old pair:  
 Let others with pleasure and gratitude boast  
 Of the sweet pretty seaports on Devon's fair coast:  
 Let Brighton still brag her adorable Steyne,  
 Her downs so salubrious, her billow-toss'd scene:  
 Let Hastings her tribute of favour demand  
 For the sea-temper'd breezes that fan her smooth sand:  
 Yet Hastings, alas! is a fishing town still,  
 Let them tell of her beauties whatever they will.

'Let shopkeepers yearly to Margate repair,  
 And boast that they meet with good company there,  
 Of her town and her rooms and her excellent fish  
 And ev'ry thing charming a mortal can wish:  
 Let those sing their praises of Broadstairs aloud  
 Who come for snug bathing and shrink from a crowd:  
 Yet for elegant whim, philosophical ease,  
 Pure taste to delight and chaste fancy to please,  
 For patterns of fashion, gentility, birth,  
 For the union proverbial of wisdom and mirth,  
 For a classical charm and a manner divine,  
 Both the health to restore and the soul to refine,  
 O! Ramsgate! the credit, the glory, be thine!" P. 47.

*A Tribute to the Manes of unfortunate Poets: in four Cantos. With  
 other Poems on various Subjects. By John Hunter, Esq. 12mo.  
 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

Mr. Hunter has composed his Tribute in eight-syllable verse,  
 of all our English metres the most unfit for serious poetry. How  
 he has succeeded, the reader may judge from our extract.

' I hate the critic's rigid art,  
 That stints the transports of the heart,  
 That will unfeeling exclude  
 The verse as false, the thought as rude,  
 That deviates from the narrow rules  
 And frigid theories of schools.  
 O! give me one whose genius free  
 His timid bondsmen scorns to be,  
 Who nobly ranges uncontroul'd,  
 Like Camoens artless, wild and bold.  
 Let the grim monster that arose  
 De Gama's Squadron to oppose,  
 Towering like Ide, with threatening mien,  
 Excite the sickening critic's spleen,  
 I dwell with rapture on the line,  
 And dare to call the theme divine.

' Ye pigmy bards! whose little all  
 Is rhæbus, song, and madrigal,  
 Well may you as you ken his flight,  
 Turn giddy at the wond'rous height;  
 As one, whose eyes, with daring view,  
 The bird of paradise pursue,  
 Will shut them as he higher flies,  
 Daz'd by the splendour of the skies.

' Alas! how oft we find below,  
 Protracted life, protracted woe.  
 Did the impetuous waves regard  
 The life of valiant Gama's bard;  
 But to reserve him to oppose  
 Severer conflicts, bitterer foes?  
 But though the wind and raging main,  
 Fortune's fair gifts and labour's gain  
 O'erwhelm'd; the raging main and wind  
 Could not affect his godlike mind.  
 Not from the heavy clods of earth,  
 His lofty genius drew its birth:  
 From heavenly climes and angel quires,  
 Descended his poetic fires,  
 And ever burn'd serenely bright,  
 Like orient suns, or vestal light.' P. 56.

On this passage we must remark, that the name of Camoens should be accented on the middle syllable, that the contraction of *Ida* into *Ide* is unpleasant, and that *daz'd* is awkwardly forged instead of *dazzled*. The applause bestowed upon Camoens discovers little taste or discrimination. The poems which accompany the Tribute betray the same mediocrity of talent. The Fragment, an attempt at a higher order of poetry, is feeble and dilated; and the other pieces are trifling lines upon trifling subjects. To justify

our censure, we subjoin the last sonnet, of which the morality and poetry may speak for themselves.

\* In a rude storm of thunder and of rain,  
 With aspect horrible, see Winter come.  
 Keen is the air and ruffet is the plain,  
 Solid the stream, and wither'd Nature's bloom:  
 Shut, shut the door, and thro' the chilly room  
 Let kindling wood a cheerful warmth inspire;  
 Draw near your chair, and dissipate the gloom  
 With lively converse, and with genial fire,  
 And let the bottle pass with honest glee,  
 At every glass your spirits mounting high'r,  
 Or dance a gentle damsel on your knee,  
 Whose looks oppose her struggles to retire.  
 If wisely thus you buxom pleasure court,  
 The longest evening shall appear too short.' P. 178.

*An Epistle to a Friend, with other Poems. By the Author of the Pleasures of Memory. 4to. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

Like the other productions of Mr. Rogers, this epistle is polished and elegant. The images are such as every reader will recollect with pleasure.

' Still must my partial pencil love to dwell  
 On the home-prospects of my hermit cell;  
 The mossy pales that skirt the orchard-green,  
 Here hid by shrub-wood, there by glimpses seen;  
 And the brown pathway, that, with careless flow,  
 Sinks, and is lost among the trees below.  
 Still must it trace (the flattering tints forgive)  
 Each fleeting charm that bids the landscape live.  
 O'er o'er the mead, at pleasing distance, pass  
 Browning the hedge by fits the pannier'd ass;  
 The idling shepherd-boy, with rude delight,  
 Whistling his dog to mark the pebble's flight;  
 And in her kerchief blue the cottage-maid,  
 With brimming pitcher from the shadowy glade.  
 Far to the south a mountain-vale retires,  
 Rich in its groves, and glens, and village-spires;  
 Its upland lawns, and cliffs with foliage hung,  
 Its wizard-stream, nor nameless nor unsung:  
 And, thro' the various year, the various day,  
 What scenes of glory burst, and melt away!' P. 10.

The other pieces, in our opinion, are not equal to the epistle. It is a strong metaphor to say that

' ————— blue eyes  
 Gild the calm current of domestic hours.'

The lines to a gnat are too much in the forced stile of Dr. Darwin. Pompous language and pompous images cannot elevate a trifling subject. When we read of whirring wings, dragon scales, and a barbed shaft unsheathing its terrors, and find that this description is applied to a gnat, it reminds us of the language of a riddle.

*Thalia to Eliza: a poetical Epistle from the Comic Muse to the Countess of D——. In which various eminent, dramatic, and political Characters are displayed.* 8vo. 1s. Richardson. 1798.

Some parts of this poem are not contemptible. There are, however, more attempts at wit than are successful, as our specimen will show.

‘ Ah, poet\*, early lov’d, and early lost,  
Where art thou? in what whirling eddy tost?  
In what gulph whelm’d? Could not that brilliant wit,  
Bright as Apollo’s, find a kinder pit  
In your own theatre? a fuller board  
In Wesley’s lockers than the treas’ry board?  
What have your ragged Begums done for you,  
That the nine sisters could not better do?  
Would not Parnassus furnish fresher bays  
Than puzzling Windham’s metaphysic maze?  
What from Dundas’s temples can you tear,  
But prickles harden’d in north British air?  
A trophy dearly bought, of which possess,  
You find it but a thistle at the best.  
Turn, turn to me! of the Pierian spring  
Drink yet again, and stretch your soaring wing!  
Of many, ah! too many, tho’ bereft,  
Still has your cause some stout supporters left.  
Jordan, be sure, to do your muse a grace,  
Wou’d cease her labours for the Brunswick race,  
Proud for your brow the laurel wreath to twine,  
Lop off one hero from the royal line;  
And she is nature’s own.—I found her such,  
Nor marr’d the copy by a single touch,  
The finish’d work such high perfection bore,  
Art cou’d add nothing, Nature give no more.’ P. 24.

## N O V E L S.

*Cinthelia, or, a Woman of Ten Thousand.* By George Walker, Author of *Theodore Cyphon*, &c. 4 Vols. 12mo. 14s. sewed. Crosby. 1797.

The heroine of this novel, disappointed in her first love, accepts

the hand of Mobile, who, though a tradesman's son, entertains a great contempt for commerce. Soon after marriage, he neglects and ill-treats her; but she submits to her fate with exemplary patience. His fortune, though at first considerable, cannot support the life of dissipation which he leads; and, as his circumstances become embarrassed, the irritability of his temper increases. Cinthelia, however, continues to manifest a prudent resignation. When her husband's fortune has been consumed by his extravagance, he is taken into her father's house; but he is unwilling to relinquish his profligate habits. He at length enlists as a private in a regiment which is on the point of embarking for America. He resolves to take Cinthelia with him; and she consents to accompany him, leaving her children in England. She meets with a variety of misfortunes, under which she experiences the greatest consolation, from the circumstance of having regained the affection of Mobile, who becomes a reformed husband. He does not long survive his return to Great Britain; and the widow then marries a person whom she had before refused.

The conclusion of the work will indicate the moral of it.

'Cinthelia exhibited, in every situation, the perfection of the female character, so far as human nature can ascend, and though her fortune was to traverse, at an early period, through the most rugged paths of life, with a companion that added distresses to the way, by taking DUTY for her guide, she was never without internal satisfaction, and never could reproach herself with meriting the misfortunes she experienced.' Vol. iv. p. 273.

We meet with pleasing and interesting passages in this novel; and some knowledge of the world is manifested by the writer; but various parts of the performance are frivolous, and it is degraded by the general inaccuracy of the diction.

*Anecdotes of two well-known Families. Written by a Descendant; and dedicated to the first female Pen in England. Prepared for the Press by Mrs. Parsons, Author of an old Friend with a new Face, &c. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. sewed. Longman, 1798.*

The outline of this story is said to have been sent to the editor by some unknown friend. Whether this statement is true or false, is of little consequence to the public. The story itself is interesting; but the interest becomes weaker after the first volume.

#### MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

*Fragments: in the Manner of Sterne. 12mo. 6s. Boards. Debrett. 1797.*

Among the many attempts in imitation of Sterne, these fragments have as great a resemblance to the original as any that we have yet seen. We are particularly pleased with the Gentoo story.

CRIT. REV. VOL. XXIII. July, 1798.

B b



It is well written, interesting, and pathetic. The following extract will, we think, convey a favourable idea of the success of the author in his imitations, and justify our commendation of his work.

' An' please your honour—quoth Trim—I think it would be much kinder, to leave them alone;—they cannot be more than happy!—I am no parson,—but I should think, your honour, that God takes a peaceful life as the best part of religion.—— But Trim—quoth my uncle Toby—it is to spread the light of the gospel!—The gospel, an' please your honour—cannot do more than make them harmless and happy:—and besides, as they are, your honour, they are not selfish;—they think every thing has a right to live, as well as themselves—and that's more than many a Christian can say, an' please your honour.—— If we may judge, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby, (with a look of timid presumption)—I should think it must be pleasing to the kind Being who made us—to see the lowliest of his creatures respected as a part of his workmanship!——

' An' please your honour—said Trim—I think there's more fuss, than honesty, in such an expedition;—it's more for the look, your honour, than the thing itself.——

' It is out of our power, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby—to fathom any heart but our own;—it may arise from a goodness of intent—and generosity of feeling—as they conceive the light of the gospel, Trim, as the only light of happiness.——

' And does your honour think—quoth Trim, (with a look upwards)—that such a wise commander would throw all succour into a little corner of the world,—while he left open the greater part of his works unsheltered and undefended?—An' please your honour, it would be like dismounting the cannon from a citadel—to defend a sentry-box.

' I do think, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby—that we should review our own conscience, and the conscience of those about us—repair the works and raise the mounds of religion within ourselves—before we venture into the territories of Innocence and Simplicity.——

' They are better able to teach us, an' please your honour—than we them!——For I should think peace and good-will to one another—is better than a sermon from the archbishop of Canterbury himself.——

' Peace and good will is the real spirit of religion, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby;—and, if generally practised—we should have little to fear from the outward attacks of an enemy, or the inward ones of our own reflections.——I think—quoth Trim—that we read enough of old times—and see enough in the present—to make us leave off troubling our heads about other people's opinions and religion;—let every one pray as he likes!—An' please your honour, every engineer has his particular notions of fortification, and

the science of defence;—and, as long as he doesn't point his cannon against the castle of any man,—no one has a right to see into his plans.——An old brother-soldier, who served in India, was telling me——(I'll tell your honour some of his stories, when your honour has leisure to hear them.)——As we are in winter-quarters, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby, (laying his left leg on a chair which was at the side of him)——as we are in winter-quarters, Trim—with a good fire before us——An' please your honour—quoth Trim, interrupting my uncle, (and with a look that changed a smile into an air of sympathy)——how many a brave lad, after a long march up to his knees in snow—would be glad to sit down before it!—his hands so numbed as scarce to feel whether he had a firelock or no!——He should be as welcome, Trim—said my uncle Toby, (his eyes sparkling with generosity)——as though he were commander in chief of the bravest troops in the whole world.——

' My uncle Toby lighted his pipe——Let me hear one of the stories;—come nearer, Trim—said my uncle Toby.——Trim drew a chair opposite to my uncle Toby, and began:——An' please your honour—there was a Gentoo——

' As Trim began, my father opened the parlour door——Now what attack (said he to himself) are those two military noddies planning?——Trim rose up——Sit down, corporal!—said my father, with a twist of his head, and flourish of politeness.——

' My father drew a chair to the fire-side——

' Go on with the story, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby.

'——There was a Gentoo, an' please your honour—who sat so long in one position, as to give himself a most cruel cramp——Now what does your honour think—continued Trim, (in a tone of the most artless simplicity)—that he cramped himself in such a manner for?——I cannot guess, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby.——He cramped himself so,—an' please your honour——for fear he should kill a fly!——

' The generous blood remembered,—it was so habituated to do so—that it never forgot it,—to fly to the face of my uncle Toby.——Whenever a sentiment, or an action, that did honour to humanity—was said, or done—his blood, ever faithful to his cheek, was sure to rise, and tally it there.

' There's many a man, Trim—quoth my uncle Toby—who is called a social being—that would not give himself half so much trouble to save the life of a fellow-creature.

' An' please your honour—when I tell you the story of this poor soul—it will wring a tear from your honour's eye, and a sigh from your heart.——I beg your honour's pardon for saying "wring;"—for your honour's tear is always ready for the mischance—even of a worm.——

' There was a something that moved my frame with such a sweet

and gentle hand,—when Trim complimented—I would say—when Trim delineated—the real touches of my uncle's humanity,—that I felt an indefinable titillation about my heart-strings—which I would not exchange—for all the laughter in the universe.'  
P. 59.

*Recherches sur l'Usage des Radeaux pour une Descente. Par M. . . .  
Colonel au Corps de Condé, ci-devant Membre de l'Académie Royale  
des Sciences de Paris. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dulau. 1798.*

*Inquiries into the Use of Rafts for a Descent.*

If the print-shops had not already exposed sufficiently the absurd notion of invading Great-Britain by rafts, the publication of this pamphlet might have been useful in removing the apprehensions of the timid and the ignorant. The writer examines the difficulty of procuring materials for the rafts, the time necessary for their construction, the weight which they could support, the impracticability of moving them by oars or sails, and other particulars; and he employs more science upon the occasion than such a chimæra deserves.

*The History of the Reigns of Peter III. and Catharine II. of Russia; translated from the French, and enlarged with explanatory Notes and brief Memoirs of illustrious Persons. Vol. I. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cawthorn. 1798.*

This translation is not altogether free from Gallic idioms; nor is it always faithful to the sense of the original. The Appendix to the volume contains the history of prince Iwan, extracted from Coxe's Travels; a biographical sketch of count Munich, chiefly borrowed from Busching; anecdotes of Ernest John de Biren, duke of Courland; a sketch of the life of the late king of Poland; the history of Catharine I.; an account of Pugatcheff; and reflections on the short reign of Peter III.—Another volume will complete the work.

*Thoughts on different Subjects, chiefly Moral and Political. By R. M. C. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1797.*

The subjects discussed in this pamphlet are—'prejudice and the spirit of party'—'the dangers which have lately been supposed to threaten religion'—and 'war.' The author professes not to enter systematically into these subjects, but to give such *thoughts* on them as have incidentally occurred to his mind. We cannot but applaud the moderation with which the work is written. To a sound judgment, the author adds a greater portion of candour than we usually find in temporary publications; and we have no reason to doubt that these are the opinions of one who, with a competent knowledge of the dogmas of each party, has imbibed the prejudices of

none. We shall subjoin a short specimen from his thoughts on war, as it presents a fact which ought never to have been forgotten.

‘ With respect to one motive for war, on which there has been much difference of opinion, I mean the preservation of the balance of power, let us begin its consideration by taking one of the most memorable cases of supposed danger to it, which has happened in modern times, viz. the possession of the crown of Spain falling into the same family with that of France, in the beginning of this century. It would seem, if any confidence can be placed in the principles of politics, in reason, or in human foresight, that this close junction of two such extensive and powerful kingdoms, aided by vast possessions on the continent of America, and in the West Indies, by almost all the gold and silver of the New World, and by numerous forces both by sea and land, must have been fatal to the liberties and independence of almost all Europe. And in fact all Europe seems to have been perfectly convinced of this. In England it seems not to have been doubted that if this event took place, the trade of the nation would be ruined, the queen dethroned, the pretender established, and the protestant religion subverted; and in a vote of the house of lords, an opinion of this kind was expressly declared. In consequence of such universal and undoubted persuasions, a powerful alliance was formed among most of the states of Europe, and England entered deeply into the war. And yet, to the utter confusion of all politicians, and of all human foresight, the so much dreaded event actually took place, in spite of all combinations, and all efforts to prevent it, and the kingdoms of Spain and France were both fixed in the possession of the Bourbon family. And yet the liberties of Europe were not annihilated, the trade of England was not ruined, the queen was neither murdered nor dethroned, nor was popery introduced. And not only did these consequences not ensue from the redoubted family compact, but to the still further disgrace of all human politics, in less than six years after the grandson of Lewis the fourteenth had been acknowledged king of Spain by the peace of Utrecht; France and Spain, far from being leagued together against the liberties of Europe, were actually at war against each other; in which war, England, Holland, and Germany, were in alliance with that very kingdom of France, against which, in the preceding reign, so vast a combination had been formed by these same powers.’ p. 58.

In the preface, the writer promises a continuance of these essays; but we have learned with regret, that death has put an end to his useful labours. He was a physician at Carlisle.

*Le Nord Littéraire, Physique, Politique et Morale, Ouvrage Périodique, par le Professeur Olinarius de l'Université de Kiel en Holstein.*

*The Literature, Philosophy, Politics, and Morals of the North; a periodical Work. Nos. I.—IV. 8vo. 2s. 6d. each Number. Imported by Remnant.*

These four numbers contain the annual volume of the present journal, designed to give a view of the literature of the north of Europe, so little known to its more southern inhabitants. Its object is extensive, and the execution, so far as we can judge from the numbers before us, is judicious. The literature of Sweden will compose the fifth number. This journal is not merely confined to a review of books, but comprehends many important articles relative to domestic œconomy, modes of travelling, &c. in the northern regions.

*Dissertation on the best Means of maintaining and employing the Poor in Parish Work-houses. Published at the Request of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufacturers, and Commerce. By John Mason Good. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Morton. 1798.*

This production deserves the approbation which it has received from the society for the encouragement of arts; and we recommend the perusal of it to all who wish either to destroy or improve the present system of laws relative to the poor.

*An impartial and comprehensive View of the present State of Great Britain. Containing, 1. the Advantages which we enjoy, and which arise from natural, moral, or political Causes; and have occasioned, or tend to promote, our Strength, Wealth, Health, and Virtue, and Liberty as a Nation. 2. The Disadvantages which we labour under, and which affect our national Strength, Wealth, Health and Virtue, or Liberty. 3. Methods of improving our Advantages, or turning them to the best Account. 4. Methods of removing or mitigating our Disadvantages, particularly for repairing our Finances. With an Appendix, on the present Scarcity of Gold and Silver. By the Rev. G. S. Keith, M. A. &c. 8vo, 1s. 6d. Robinsons. 1797.*

This is a temperate discussion of many subjects intimately connected with our national credit and prosperity. The author appears to have none of the prejudices which form the two grand divisions of political writers; and he holds no opinions but what have been the result of thought and enquiry. Under the head of the advantages which we enjoy, he reckons our *natural* advantages, viz. insular situation, extent of surface and quality of soil; mines, minerals, &c.; *moral* advantages; a rational, pure, and humane religion, and good civil laws; *political* advantages; a free constitution, and our present state of civilisation. After enquiry—

ing into the probable permanency of these advantages, he proceeds to consider our disadvantages, among which he enumerates those which affect the *strength* of the nation, as, pressing of seamen, enlisting soldiers for life, and the game laws; those which affect its *wealth*, as, tithes, poor-rates, corn laws, &c.; those which affect the *health* and *virtue* of the nation, as, prodigality, effeminacy, imprisonment for debt, severity and impolicy of penal laws; those which affect *liberty*, as the unequal representation of the people in parliament, the two acts for the preservation of his majesty's person, and for preventing seditious meetings, oppressive excise laws, and retrospective laws. He also includes among our disadvantages, continental wars, the causes of our wars, their expense, and folly. He then proposes means for turning our advantages to the best account, and for removing the disadvantages which affect our liberty and our national health and virtue, and for repairing our finances. He concludes with an address to the senators and representatives of Great Britain, and sums up the whole of his plan in a kind of allegory, called 'Sketches of the History of John Bull,' which, we think, might have been omitted without any diminution of the utility of the pamphlet. In an Appendix, he offers some observations on the scarcity of gold and silver.

Amidst such a variety of subjects, it may be supposed that some are treated superficially: the usual limits of a pamphlet do not seem adequate to the purpose of doing ample justice to each. The writer, however, has condensed his matter by avoiding repetitions and the usual declamation of political controversy; and, by confining himself to facts and striking reflections, he has been enabled to enlarge where minuteness was requisite, and to collect every necessary document to give strength to his positions. The *enragés* of both parties will disown their obligations to him; but, with the dispassionate and moderate, with those who venerate the constitution in its purity, and desire the return of the nation to its prosperity, he will be found to agree in most essential points, and will be considered as having performed an acceptable service to his country by this publication.

*Report of the Committee of the House of Commons, in consequence of the several Motions relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War, Including the whole of the Examinations taken before the Committee; the Correspondence relative to the Exchange of Prisoners; the Instructions of Colonel Tate, &c. &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wright. 1798.*

It is asserted in the resolutions of this committee, that the charge of cruelty towards French prisoners of war, which has been ad-duced against this country, is utterly destitute of foundation; that it appears to have been fabricated by the rulers of France, with a view of justifying their ill treatment of British prisoners, and of irritating the minds of their countrymen against this nation; and that the British captives confined in France have been treated with

a degree of rigour and inhumanity unwarranted by the established usages of war. From the papers which accompany this report, we see no reason to doubt that the resolutions are strictly just; and we are not sorry that the enquiry was provoked, as the result is so favourable to our national character.

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### INTIMATIONS TO CORRESPONDENTS.

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PERSONS who have any concern in the management of a literary journal, cannot expect to remain undisturbed in the discharge of what they conceive to be their duty, or to be free from occasional contests with the writers of the time, particularly with those whose merits bear an inverse ratio to their vanity and presumption. The 'Suffolk Freeholder' has renewed his attack, in terms not altogether consistent with propriety or decorum. The most important part of his last letter we will transcribe for the entertainment of our readers. 'If you really mean to say, that I do write for money, or from political partiality and obvious prejudice, or to serve the purposes of any party, or that I have any patrons, *in all these cases you are guilty of a direct falsehood.* In this particular instance you best know your own meaning; and, in general, the pamphlet-writing freeholder scruples not to tell the sneering supercilious editor of the Critical Review, that he writes without elegance, criticises without candour, quotes without fidelity, asserts without truth, is scurrilous without wit, and insolent, he has no doubt, without spirit.' Such are the multiplied charges adduced against the obnoxious editor; but, while he is exposed to assaults so vehement, he consoles himself with the consideration of the facility with which they may be repelled. The first charge (that of falsehood), being repeated in the subsequent series of imputations, will more properly be obviated in the sequel. The editor, it is affirmed, 'writes without elegance;' but it may be observed in answer, that the Freeholder is far from being a competent judge of that point, as his different publications abundantly prove. The charge of a want of candour may be invalidated by remarking, that it is only urged by those who are disappointed of that praise to which they have no pretensions; and the circumstance which occasioned the mention of a neglect of faithful quotation, has been already explained. The next accusation is of a more serious nature, as it relates to a supposed violation of truth, that moral obligation which the writer of this reply has ever been scrupulously disposed to observe. It is no proof of falsehood of assertion, that the editor has accused the Freeholder of giving way to the effusions of political partiality and the dictates of obvious prejudice, as the pamphlets of that gentleman evince the truth of the remark. In support of the imputation of scurrility, no just allegations can be brought forward; and, as genuine wit is not only a rare quality, but one of which a literary censor might be tempted to make a sinister use, a deficiency of it will not be considered as culpable. With regard to the charge of insolence, the editor may confidently disclaim it, and retort it upon his fierce assailant; and he may add, that, from no part of his behaviour in this contest, can a want of spirit be presumed.

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In answer to X. D. we may state, that we have received a copy of the Refuge, and that it is under consideration.

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We return thanks for the critique (sent from Carlisle) upon a work published at Newcastle, under the title of 'A General View of the Agriculture of the County of Northumberland;' but we beg leave to decline the unsolicited communications of unknown critics.

# THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

AUGUST, 1798.

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*History of Great Britain, from the Revolution to the Session of Parliament ending A. D. 1793. By W. Belsham. 4 Vols. 4to. 4l. 4s. Boards. Robinsons: 1798.*

ON the eventual utility of history it is unnecessary to expatiate, as that point has been so frequently and so strongly urged; but we have reason to lament that the enforcement of it has not been remarkably efficacious, when addressed to the rulers of nations. Princes and statesmen, instead of drawing conclusions from the examples and events of former times, too readily listen to the hasty dictates of their own minds, whether shallow or profound; follow their own prejudices, without reflecting on their fallacy; and eagerly pursue schemes which a small portion of historical knowledge would have induced them to consider, on judging by comparison, as rash and unpromising. This neglect, however, of a pleasing study, by those who might be particularly expected to cultivate it, will not derogate from its general merits.

The writer of the history which now offers itself to our notice, has fixed upon an important period for the renewed exercise of his talents. Having before published memoirs of our Hanoverian sovereigns, he has now made a retrograde motion to the times of William and Anne; and he will perhaps, in imitation of Hume (who began with the house of Stuart, and afterwards wrote an account of the earlier reigns), extend his work by tracing the history of this country to the remotest æra of record.

We are informed by Mr. Belsham, in his Preface, that 'his authorities, during the period in question, are chiefly Sir John Dalrymple and Mr. Macpherson, to whom the public owe great obligation for their interesting and important communications.' He subjoins a short *critique* on Burnet, Ralph, Tindal, and Smollet. He has justly characterised the two first; and he properly observes of the third, that his materials are 'thrown together in a sort of chaotic mass, at once unanimated and unenlightened.' Tindal, indeed, was a wretched



compiler, or rather a mere copyist; and, besides making many repetitions in transcribing from the Historical Register, Boyer's Annals, and other works, he would sometimes give inconsistent accounts of the same event, not with a view of exhibiting the variations of statement, but from indolence or want of discrimination.—To Dr. Smollet our author attributes 'talents;' but 'his genius (he adds) was *entirely* turned to the low and the ludicrous.' We think, however, that the serious parts of Smollet's novels, his Ode to Independence, and even his tragedy of the Regicide (the produce of his juvenile years), disprove the latter assertion. We also differ from Mr. Belsham with regard to the historical character of the same writer; for, though we do not entertain a high opinion of the doctor's merit in that department, we wish to see every person treated with candour and equity. 'Of the dignity and beauty of historic composition (it is affirmed) he had no conception; and much less could he boast of possessing any portion of its all-pervading and philosophic spirit.' But the preface to his history, in which he sketches the plan of the work, proves that he had *some* conception of those points of which he is said to have been ignorant; and, though he had not the philosophical penetration of Hume, he certainly was not deficient in sense or sagacity. 'His work (continues the severe censor) is a dull and often malignant compilation, equally destitute of *instruction* or of *amusement*.' This remark is, in one point, so inconsistent with a former part of Mr. Belsham's preface (intimating that 'much salutary instruction' may be derived from 'recorded facts,' notwithstanding the want of ability in the historian), and, in another respect, so contradictory to the observation of Pliny, '*historia quoque modo scripta deletat*,' and to the general opinion of readers, that, even if Smollet had scarcely risen above the rank of a dull and tasteless transcriber, like Tindal, the affirmation would not have been true.

As Mr. Coxe lately accused Mr. Belsham of extreme negligence and want of candour, our author has endeavoured to repel the charges; and we must allow, that he is not wholly unsuccessful; but the attack upon the former ground is not so strongly resisted as the latter imputation.

The reader is introduced to the reign of William by a summary mention of the chief occurrences which distinguished the twenty-eight years from the Restoration to the Revolution. In this sketch the unprincipled character of Charles II. is justly stigmatised: the earl of Clarendon is treated with a freedom which will displease bigots: the sale of Dunkirk is, in a great measure, vindicated: the acceptance of French gold, by the members of opposition, is justified as conducive to patriotic purposes: the supposed popish plot is treated as an

imposture: the arbitrary imprudence of James II. is exposed; and the account of William's success is followed by these apposite remarks.

'Such was the expedition and such the facility with which a revolution was accomplished, which in its consequences must be acknowledged one of the most interesting and important in the annals of history. From this period, a government was established, which had for its basis—what no other government had ever before expressly assumed—the natural and unalienable rights of mankind. From this period the grand question, whether government ought to be exercised for the advantage of the governors or the governed, was finally decided. Government was by the highest authority allowed, and even virtually asserted, to be a trust. And the inference could not with any degree of plausibility be disputed, that the men in whom this trust is vested, by whatever names or titles they may be distinguished, are ultimately responsible to the community for the proper exercise of it.' Vol. i. p. 53.

Annexed to the introduction is a plausible vindication of the first earl of Shaftesbury from the misrepresentations of Hume.

In entering upon the reign of William, the author mentions the state of political opinions, and gives his own sentiments in favour of genuine Whig principles. He proceeds to relate, with perspicuity and occasional energy, the incidents of those times.

When he speaks of the army of the viscount Dundee; he amuses himself with a description of the manners and customs of the Highlanders, as if they were a newly-discovered nation, inhabiting a very remote part of the world; and, in a note, he gives a specimen of Gaelic poetry from the remains attributed to Ossian. These excursions are pleasing, but unnecessary.

The account of the war in Ireland is concise, but sufficiently comprehensive. Having stated the conditions of that treaty which put an end to it, Mr. Belsham adds,

'Such were the terms which this devoted portion' [*the catholics*]  
'of a great and generous but unfortunate nation, who had displayed a firmness and gallantry worthy of a far better cause, obtained from the wisdom and benignity of the British monarch. But great offence was taken at these articles, by the malignity of some, and the rapacity of others, who hoped and expected to have converted the whole country, for their own individual emolument, into one tremendous mass of misery, confiscation, and ruin. For to such a state of selfish and remorseless depravity may human nature be degraded, that, to use the forcible language of Lord Bacon, "there are those who would not hesitate to set their neighbour's house on fire, merely to roast their own eggs by the flames." The many thousands who retired to the

continent, left behind them, however, sufficient property to gratify any ordinary lust of wealth or vengeance: and the refugees were received, on their arrival in France, with that kindness and generosity which happily on so many occasions serve to soften the traits of the dark and terrific character of Louis XIV.' Vol. i. p. 120.

Of the correspondence maintained by many of William's ostensible friends with the court of St. Germain, the author thus speaks:

' There exists incontrovertible evidence that the earl of Marlborough, in common with many other persons of high rank and consequence, held a clandestine and unlawful correspondence with the court of St. Germain's; and the disgrace of that nobleman was beyond all reasonable doubt owing to the authentic information received by the king of his treasonable practices. The dark and crooked policy of those who engaged in this extraordinary scene of dissimulation, makes it extremely questionable whether any measures were really taken by them with a view to facilitate the restoration of the late king. The earl of Marlborough, who was perhaps the greatest adept in this Machiavelian school, wrote, as appears, letters of deep contrition to the court of St. Germain's, imploring pardon and forgiveness for his past conduct, which James thought it expedient to grant, though he justly entertained the greatest doubts respecting his present sincerity.' Vol. i. p. 146.

' Not only were such flagitious or problematic characters as Sunderland, Halifax, Monmouth, Marlborough, &c. deeply involved in these machinations and cabals, but men of the greatest private, and, in other respects, public virtue—Godolphin, Shrewsbury and Russell. Even the marquis of Carmarthen, one of the heads of the present administration, became a plotter or pretended plotter against the government: but the character of the earl of Nottingham, to his lasting honor, stands untainted and unimpeached. The most easy and obvious mode of accounting for the prevalence of a conduct so treacherous, is the extreme apprehension which appears to have been almost universally entertained of the eventual restoration of the late king. For the extraordinary political revolutions which had taken place in the course of the last half century—the dethronement and death of king Charles I.—the establishment of a commonwealth, with its sudden subversion—the consequent restoration of king Charles II.—the deposition and expulsion of James, and the surprising advancement of the prince of Orange to the crown, made the re-establishment of the late king appear incomparably more feasible to the contemporary actors than it is now easy to credit or conceive—supported as, it must ever be remembered, James at this period was by the mighty and, in the current opinion of numbers, irresistible power of France.' Vol. i. p. 146.

The character of sir John (afterwards lord) Somers is too encomiastic.

‘ Somers was a man of strict integrity, of great capacity for business, of the mildest and most engaging manners, of the most generous and liberal principles. Not satisfied with the reputation of being the first lawyer and statesman of the age, he was also an exquisite judge and most munificent patron of literary merit. In a word, in him were united all the virtues and accomplishments which can make a character either great or amiable; and history is proud to exhibit him as one of those exalted personages who occasionally appear to adorn and to enlighten a world too often ignorant or insensible of their merits.’ Vol. i. p. 168.

Our historian is too lenient to the memory of William, in treating of the massacre at Glencoe. He says,

‘ The king, moved with just resentment at the imposition practised upon him, dismissed the master of Stair from his service; and caused a commission to be passed under the great seal of Scotland for a pre-cognition in that matter, which is a usual mode in that kingdom of investigating crimes previous to bringing the criminals to a regular trial.’ Vol. i. p. 191.

Though the king may have been in some measure deceived by the master of Stair, his conduct in the affair merits censure. He did not withdraw his confidence from that inhuman oppressor; and, though he suffered an inquiry to be made into the business, he paid no regard to the request of the parliament of Scotland for the punishment of the assassins. ‘ It does not appear,’ (Mr. Belsham admits) that, when prosecutions were ordered to be instituted, the ‘ examples made were so signally conspicuous as might have been wished and expected.’ It does not appear, he might have said, that *any* examples were made. He dismisses the subject with these words:

‘ It seems probable, that the king, perceiving the quiet which had prevailed in the Highlands from that period, had, with the characteristic indifference of a soldier, harbored the opinion that the military execution of Glencoe, though attended with circumstances of culpable barbarity, was in itself justifiable, as calculated to produce effects permanently beneficial.’ Vol. i. p. 219.

But it seems to be more probable, that William did not consider it as a point of any importance, whether the act was justifiable or not.

The bill of attainder against sir John Fenwick is represented as unnecessary and impolitic, though the principle upon which it was defended is admitted by our author.

'The impolicy of the Whigs' [*who promoted the bill*] 'was manifest in thus affording their antagonists the Tories an opportunity, which they eagerly embraced, of appearing in the advantageous light of the advocates and defenders of the constitution. For, however romantic it may be to deny the abstract principle, that there are extraordinary cases which justify extraordinary deviations from established rules; yet cannot the concluding observation of the lords' protest be justly controverted, "that sir John Fenwick is so inconsiderable a man, as to the endangering the peace of the government, that there needs no necessity of proceeding against him in this extraordinary manner." Vol. i. p. 262.

The practicability of the treaty of partition, concluded in 1698, is controverted in the following reflections; and its policy is also disputed.

'The object of William was most assuredly to prevent a future desolating and destructive war in Europe. But, could it be imagined by a prince so celebrated for sagacity, that the emperor would acquiesce in an arrangement so injurious to his interests, and so contrary to his pretended rights? Would the court of Madrid ever be prevailed upon to confirm this arbitrary distribution of its territories, equally incompatible with national dignity and national prejudice? Could the sincerity of France itself be depended upon in this business? The court of Versailles had probably too much political penetration to expect this project to be peaceably executed. They hoped by these means to secure the amity, or at least the neutrality, of England; and any opposition from the emperor would disengage them from the obligation of confining themselves, if successful, within the letter of the treaty. "It does not appear," says lord Somers, in his famous letter to the king, "in case this negotiation should proceed, what is to be done on your part, in order to make it take place: whether any more be required than that the English and Dutch should sit still, and France itself to see it executed. If that be so, what security ought we to expect, that, if by our being neuter the French be successful, the French will confine themselves to the terms of the treaty, and not attempt to make farther advantages of their success?" In these circumstances, a severe but obvious and indispensable duty was imposed on the lord chancellor to represent to the king, in the most energetic language, the pernicious consequences which must inevitably result from this strange and impracticable project; and peremptorily to refuse, at the risk of incurring the utmost displeasure of the king, to transmit the extraordinary and unconstitutional commission required of him. Even supposing, against all probability, the eventual acquiescence of Spain and the emperor in this treaty, what arrangement more favorable to the interests of France could even the caprice of chance devise, than the present, by which so many

rich and valuable provinces were incorporated with her empire?" Vol. i, p. 290.

With the treatment which William received from the commons, when they insisted on the dismissal of the Dutch guards, Mr. Belsham is not pleased. A message was delivered to that assembly, intimating that the king would send away the guards without delay, unless the house, 'out of consideration to him,' should 'find a way for continuing them longer in his service;' a favour which he would thankfully acknowledge.

'Far from complying with a request so natural and reasonable, the house of commons in a flame instantly resolved upon an address to the king, on a division of 175 to 156 voices, declaring "their unspeakable grief that his majesty should be advised to propose any thing to which they could not consent with due regard to that constitution which his majesty came over to restore, and so often exposed his royal person to preserve—and did in his gracious declaration promise, that all those foreign forces which came over with him should be sent back."—This was certainly a most ungracious mode of reminding the king of his gracious declaration, and favored much more of faction than of patriotism. To this intemperate address the king made a cool and judicious reply, expressing his entire confidence in the affections of his people, and repelling with firmness the insinuation that his wish to retain his native guards arose from any distrust of the attachment of his English subjects.

'The king saw and indignantly felt, nevertheless, how eager and incessant were the efforts of many individuals to traduce his character, and embarrass the measures of his government. In a confidential letter written by him at this period to Rouvigny earl of Galway, he says, "I see you are uneasy at the proceedings of the parliament here. I think you have too much cause to be so—It is not to be conceived how people here are set against the foreigners.—You will easily judge on *whom* this reflects. My measures must be regulated according as things go in the parliament, of which there is no being sure till the session is over.—There is a spirit of ignorance and malice prevails here beyond conception." Vol. i. p. 298.

The scheme of forming a settlement on the isthmus of Darien is strongly reprobated; and the ill success of the expedition is thus noticed, while the dissingenuous behaviour of the king, in tantalising the Scots, is not censured.

'Nothing but misfortune attended this ill-fated and extravagant project. Of the ships sent out with stores and reinforcements, one took fire by accident, and a second was wrecked near Carthagena, the cargo confiscated, and the crew sent to prison. Those who

reached the destined shore, finding their expectations wholly blasted, were wrought up to a pitch of insubordination and animosity, which utterly disqualified them from adopting any rational means either of subsistence or defence. In fine, seeing their inability to resist the force which the Spaniards were preparing to bring against them, they thought proper to sign a capitulation, and entirely to evacuate the Spanish coast, after the immense expence incurred in the successive equipments and preparations of the company, who were, however reluctantly, at length compelled to open their eyes, when their invincible obstinacy in folly had left them nothing to contemplate but their own beggary, bankruptcy and ruin.' Vol. i. p. 304.

The sketch of William's character is spirited; but some may think that it is too highly coloured.

'In his person he was not above the middle size, pale, thin, and valetudinary. He had a Roman nose, bright and eagle eyes, a large front, and a countenance composed to gravity and authority. All his senses were critical and exquisite. His words came from him with caution and deliberation; and his manners, excepting to his intimate friends, were cold and reserved. He spoke Dutch, French, English, and German, equally well; and he understood Latin, Spanish, and Italian. His memory was exact and tenacious, and he was a profound observer of men and things. He perfectly understood and possessed a most extensive influence over the political concerns and interests of Europe. Though far above vanity or flattery, he was pertinacious in his opinions; and, from a clear perception or persuasion of their rectitude, was too impatient of censure or control. He attained not to the praise of habitual generosity, from his frequent and apparently capricious deviations into the extremes of profusion and parsimony. His love of secrecy was perhaps too nearly allied to dissimulation and suspicion; and his fidelity in friendship to partiality and prejudice. Though resentful and irritable by nature, he harbored no malice, and disdained the meanness of revenge. He believed firmly in the truth of religion, and entertained an high sense of its importance. But his tolerant spirit, and his indifference to the forms of church government, made him very obnoxious to the great body of the clergy. He appeared born for the purpose of opposing tyranny, persecution, and oppression: and for the space of thirty years it is not too much to affirm that he sustained the greatest and most truly glorious character of any prince whose name is recorded in history. In his days, and by his means, the first firm and solid foundations were laid of all that is most valuable in civil society. Every vindication of the natural and unalienable rights of mankind was, till he ascended the throne of Great Britain, penal and criminal. To him we owe the assertion and the final establishment of our constitutional privileges. To him the intellectual world is indebted for

the full freedom of discussion; and the unrestrained avowal of their sentiments on subjects of the highest magnitude and importance. To sum up all, his character was distinguished by virtues rarely found amongst princes—moderation, integrity, simplicity, beneficence, magnanimity. Time, which has cast a veil over his imperfections, has added lustre to his many great and admirable qualities. His political views were in the highest degree laudable and upright. He had true ideas of the nature and ends of government: and the beneficial effects of his noble and heroic exertions will probably descend to the latest generations, rendering his name justly dear to the friends of civil and religious liberty, and his memory ever glorious and immortal.' Vol. i. p. 369.

It must be the earnest wish of every friend of liberty, that the effects alluded to may be perpetual; but the probability of such permanence is not perhaps very strong.

*(To be continued.)*

*Ancient Metaphysics. Volume Fifth. Containing the History of Man, in the Civilized State. 4to. 15s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1797.*

WITH the literary labours, the learning, and the singularities, of lord Monboddo, our readers cannot be unacquainted: but all, except his warm admirers, will probably be pleased to find that he is less prolix in the present volume than in that which was noticed in our Review for October, 1797; and it will be an additional gratification to observe, that, in the pages before us, his lordship's attention is in a great measure drawn from the inceptive civilisation of the ourang-outang to the state of man as he is, and that, instead of a credulous garrulity attempting to revive the currency of fiction, the reflections of a sensible and liberal mind, on some important parts of animal and political œconomy, are occasionally interspersed. These parts of the work present the writer in a light much more advantageous than that in which he appears when he is deluded by the reveries of Plato, or entangled among the subtilties of Aristotle.

In treating of the health and comfort which attend cleanliness of the body, he remarks, that

'The people of England have been at more pains, and more expence, than, I believe, any other people of the world, to restore health after it is lost, not only by physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries, and all sorts of drugs and medicines, but by erecting hospitals, more, I am persuaded, than are to be found in any other country. Yet disease, in England, still continues to increase; and



it is surprizing how many of those, that are put into hospitals, die there, and particularly children.\* Of this I have given an example in the third volume of this work, where I have mentioned an hospital for children in London, in which, out of 74, there died 71 in a year. But the people of England have not been so attentive to the preserving health, a thing of much more value than the restoring it after it is lost. One of the things that preserves health, more than any thing else I know, is the daily use of the cold bath, by which, as I have said, we are prevented from living in the filth of our own bodies, and having that filth again taken in by our skins. This preventive of disease is particularly necessary among the common people, who cannot afford a clean shirt every day, and wear the same shirt, not only for days, but for weeks together. There is a part of the Highlands of Scotland, where, as I was informed by a clergyman, who was a native there, the country people wear their shirts, without shifting, till they are in rags; the consequence of which is, that they are all overrun with the itch, and must be liable to many more diseases. Now, this mischief might be in a great measure prevented by the frequent use of the cold bath; and, I think, it is worth the attention of government, to give the people of Scotland, and particularly those of the Highlands, an opportunity of using it, by erecting public baths, such as they have in the south of France, and which, I am persuaded, contribute very much to the health of the people there. The baths might be erected and kept going at a very small expence, which might be furnished by a trifling tax on the people of the several districts where the baths are erected.' P. 21.

The patriotic members of the community, by adopting the hints here benevolently thrown out, would be entitled to more applause, than they would deserve by adding to our territorial possessions, or by testifying the most exemplary solicitude for the observance of religious rites. It is obvious, that, independently of the salubrious consequences which would attend the institution of public baths, decency would be gratified by the removal of the offensive spectacles of nakedness so frequently exhibited near large towns in the bathing season.

To prove the pernicious influence of exorbitant wealth on the morals of a nation; the writer deduces many examples from ancient history; and he then adverts to the frequency of criminal punishments in this country, which he attributes to the same source.

\* As there is more wealth, I believe, in England than in any other country of Europe, so there are, there, to be seen more bad effects of wealth than any where else; for there are, in England, more crimes and vices, more diseases and more indigence, than in any other nation now existing, or, I believe, that ever did exist. As to crimes, they abound so much, that our jails cannot hold our

convicts; and we are obliged to send out colonies, such as no nation ever sent out before, to a very distant country, till of late quite unknown; to which they are transported at a great expence, and maintained, when there, at a still greater\*.—Now, these crimes are almost all the effects of wealth. For the people of England I hold to be of as good natural dispositions as any people in the world. They are by nature kind and benevolent; nor is there any people now existing so benevolent, or that bestows so much in public or private charity. But wealth, which, as I have shown, naturally produces indigence, makes them steal, rob, and sometimes, though very rarely, murder; also forge; and, in carrying on commerce, cheat and practise every kind of fraud; to express one of which we have been obliged to invent a word, and to call it swindling. In other nations men commit crimes in the heat of passion, or from motives of jealousy and revenge; but, in England, it is indigence that produces almost all the crimes.—As to vices, they are the natural effects of wealth in all countries; and, as there is more wealth in England than in other countries, I believe there is likewise more vice. Diseases also are the natural effects of wealth in every country; and, therefore, there are likewise, in England, more diseases, and particularly that most dreadful disease consumption, of which more die than of any other two diseases; and, as it is children, or persons under age, who commonly die of it, it must be produced by the diseases or weaknesses of the parents. Now, I should be glad to know, whether crimes and vices, diseases and indigence, be not one or other of them, and much more altogether, the source of the misery of every nation?

‘ There is one observation more that I will make upon the love of money. It is a passion which may be said to comprehend every other, as it furnishes the materials for gratifying not only our sensual appetites, but our vanity, and our taste for every thing we think beautiful or fine; also our ambition, particularly in Britain.

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\* ‘ There is a man, whom I know, of the name of Walker, a purser in one of our frigates, and whom I have formerly mentioned, (vol. 4. p. 367.) who was four years in Botany Bay, longer, I believe, than any man at present in Europe has been. He lived for some time in my neighbourhood in the country; and I had much conversation with him upon the subject of our colony of convicts. He told me, that when he came away from Botany Bay, which was about two or three years ago, there were there 5000 convicts, and 1000 more in an island in the neighbourhood, called Norfolk Island. And, coming home, he met, upon the sea, several ships going to Botany Bay, full of more of them. I was in London when the first colony was sent off; and I was told, what I could not have believed, if I had not had it from the best authority, that interest was made by several men, who were not convicted, nor suspected of any crime, to be sent with the convicts to Botany Bay; and, I have heard, that others have committed petty larcenies, on purpose that they might be convicted and transported thither. Such it appears is the extreme poverty among the lower people of England.’

where money makes a man very eminent in the state and government of the country. It is, therefore, a most comprehensive passion: but it excludes what I think our greatest happiness in this life; and, that is the pleasure of loving and being loved; for a man, who is possessed by this passion, has neither love nor friendship for any man. Now, a man, who loves no man, can be beloved by no man, not even by his nearest relations; for, as Horace says, addressing himself to the man of money,

Non uxor saluum te vult, non filius; omnes  
Vicini oderunt, noti, pueri, atque puellae.  
Miraris, cum tu argento post omnia ponas,  
Si nemo præstet, quem non merearis, amorem?

Lib. i. Sat. i.

\* This passion, in Britain, is as universal as it is comprehensive, money being the pursuit, not only of almost every private man but of the public; for our legislature, when it is assembled, is chiefly employed about money; and the principal business of our minister is to contrive means how to get it, and how to lay it out. And this may be a reason, why our parliaments, and ministers, give so little attention to the three great articles of the political system, the health, the morals, and the numbers of the people.' p. 76.

Truth and wisdom appear in the foregoing reflections.—An avidity for wealth seems of late to have degraded the character of Britons, while the prodigality of public expenditure has more than kept pace with the acquisitions of commerce. We hope, however, that, as his lordship and the ministry seem to be on amicable terms, his suggestions on this topic will be regarded, and that, when our country shall repose from the agitation of war, some attention will be shown to the health and the morals of the people.

In our progress through the contents of this volume, we have had occasion to regret the want of respect discovered by the author for the talents and productions of Locke. The mere preference of the Aristotelian school, however fondly expressed, might have been forgiven, as the infirmity of classical and philosophical dotage; but, when that preference is accompanied with remarks of contumely and contempt for the author of the *Essay on the Human Understanding*, it must excite alternate disgust and indignation. It is sufficient that literary curiosity condescends to inspect the whimsical fabric of his lordship's system—let not his *tailed monsters* be permitted to whisk their filthy appendages in the eyes of common sense.

From this reprehensible part of the work, we turn with pleasure to a passage that evinces the just agricultural notions and the benevolent feelings of the author.

With regard to the class of cottagers,

‘ Scotland, in former times, was very populous : for the farms were very small ; and they were cultivated chiefly, I may say altogether, by cottagers, who lived upon the farm with their families, having a small portion of land assigned to them, which the tenant cultivated for them ; and he gave them, at the same time, grass for a cow : so that they were enabled to live very comfortably, and to bring up their families. Even so late as my younger days, there were no farms that had not cottagers, more or fewer, living upon the farms. But now things are much altered. The tenants think that they can make more profit of the cottager-land, by taking it into their own hand, and, cultivating it, and, instead of cottagers for servants, by employing unmarried servants that they keep in the house. In this way was produced a desolation of a farm in my neighbourhood, of which I have an account from my parish minister, who says, that the number of souls above the age of seven, that is the examinable age, on this farm, about 23 years ago, was 127, and now there are not above 70 of all ages upon it. And many other farms, in the county where I live, are more or less depopulated in the same way. But, by the great increase of late of servants’ wages, the tenants begin to find that they are both better served, and cheaper, by cottagers, as their forefathers were, than by servants whom they keep in the house. And, indeed, house servants are now hard to be got, by the number of cottagers, who are the breeders of servants, being so much diminished. But it gives me great pleasure to observe, that some of my tenants are served, as in former times, by cottagers only, and keep no farm servants in the house, unless perhaps a boy. One of them, who pays me no more than 30*l.* of rent, has no less than 13 cottagers living upon his farm. This farm is pretty extensive : but I have a tenant in the same part of my estate, which lies among hills, who possesses no more than 6 or 8 acres, upon which he has four families including his own ; and I have, on the same part of my estate, seven tenants, each of whom possesses no more than 3 acres of arable land, and some moorish ground for pasture, part of which they have already cultivated ; and they pay me no more than 12*s.* for each acre of the arable land, and nothing for the moor. I am persuaded I could more than double the rent of their land by letting it off to one tenant : but I should be sorry to increase my rent by depopulating any part of the country ; and I keep these small tenants as a monument of the way in which, I believe, a great part of the low lands of Scotland was cultivated in antient times.

‘ The consequence of this estate of mine being so peopled, is that there is no want of servants in it, which are very much wanted in other parts of the country ; for, as I have observed, tenants and cottagers are the breed of servants. I am so anxious about the population of the country, that I have caused number the inhabi-

tants of that part of my estate, where the farms, I have mentioned, lie; and they amount to about 200; while the rent I draw is not 100*l*. If every estate in Britain was to be so peopled, in proportion to its rent, the number of inhabitants would be more than quadrupled.

‘As I have mentioned the number of inhabitants on some farms of my estate, I will also mention the number of them upon my own farm, where the number has not been diminished during the last 60 years; (how much longer I do not know; for neither my father nor I ever turned out any cottagers;) so that, from the number of them now upon my farm, the reader may judge what the population of the country was in antient times.

‘The whole extent of my farm is about 300 acres; of which only 200 acres are in my natural possession, and cultivated by cottagers living upon the farm, and by only one unmarried servant, whom I keep in the house, with a boy who herds the cattle; all the rest of the farm is possessed by cottagers and small tenants. Of these, some possess a small village, to most of whom I give land, which I cultivate for them; and they practise different trades, by which, and by the land, they live very comfortably. Upon the whole farm, there are, including the numbers in the village I have mentioned, 27 cottagers and small tenants possessing a few acres. I think, therefore, that my farm is very well peopled, very much better than most farms in Scotland are now-a-days; though, I believe, not so well as they were in antient times. There are many proprietors, I know, who think that the number of cottagers on their land is a grievance, and they desire to be quit of them; but, for my part, I am fond of them, and call them my people; and have a pleasure in numbering them and seeing their increase, and am sorry when any of them leaves my land.

‘These observations, upon the numbers of so mean a race of people as cottagers, may appear, to many of my readers, very trifling. But the population of the country must, as I have said, depend chiefly upon the number of cottagers in it: and, I think, I have shown that they are a most useful race of men, as by them, chiefly, his majesty's army and fleet are recruited; nor without them could the many arts, that are practised in Britain, be carried on. And I would have the great and rich landholders consider, that it is the cottagers, chiefly, who supply the servants that minister to their wants and to their luxury and vanity. I think, therefore, that it is a duty which every landholder owes to his country to attend to the population, as well as the cultivation, of his estate.’ p. 306.

We are happy to escape for a moment from the recollection of lord Monboddó's eccentricities as a writer, by contemplating this truly patriarchal picture. Long may he pre-

serve his honourable station in the group! The advice which concludes the extract is a composition of benevolence and sound policy; for, as it is feelingly and justly said in a popular poem,

‘Princes and lords may flourish or may fade,  
A breath can make them as a breath has made;  
But a bold peasantry, a nation’s pride,  
When once destroyed, can never be supplied.’

We shall here conclude our account of the fifth volume of the ‘Antient Metaphysics,’ which, while it preserves the vein of singularity that has distinguished the speculations of the author, makes some compensation in other respects. As he is likely to occupy without competition the walk which he has chosen, we fear that he will continue his lucubrations with a perseverance more inflexible than our critical patience; but, if we should feel ourselves distressed by the appearance of new volumes, we shall rely on the candid sympathy of our readers.

*The Henriade, translated into English Verse. Part II. 4to.*  
1l. 1s. sewed. No Bookseller’s Name.

THE first part of this version we have already noticed with approbation\*. The remaining cantos are translated with equal fidelity and spirit. The sense of a passage, indeed, is sometimes altered, and sometimes weakened; but we are convinced with Mr. Cowper, that it is impossible to avoid these faults in a translation fettered by rhyme. In the descent of St. Louis, we may exemplify the remark.

‘Scarce had he spoke—descending from the skies  
A form aerial stood before his eyes:  
Reclin’d majestic on the lap of air,  
Obedient winds th’ approaching phantom bear:  
Immortal glories round his temples shine,  
And heav’nly beauties mark the form divine.

‘With mingled sounds of horror and of grief,  
“Cease, cease!” he cries, “forbear, unhappy chief;  
Let not one hour of guilty rage efface  
The endless honors of my royal race,  
O’erturn my altars, boundless ruin spread,  
And leave the gloomy monarch o’er the dead:

\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XXII. p. 407.

Forbear !"—Struck with the more than mortal sound;  
 Th' astonish'd troops fall prostrate on the ground,  
 And havoc paus'd : but Henry's lab'ring breast  
 Glory still fir'd, and martial rage possest :  
 As billows heaving when the winds have blown.  
 " O spirit of a world to us unknown  
 " Explain," he cries " the dread command you bear :"  
 Then sounds of heav'nly sweetness reach'd his ear.  
 " The fainted king, whom France reveres, you view,  
 The friend, the father of your race and you;  
 Who once on earth the toils of warfare bore,  
 Whose God your faithless soul adores no more.  
 But Lewis still admires, esteems his son,  
 And God prepares to place him on his throne ;  
 Paris her sov'reign shall with joy receive,  
 Mercy shall more than force or valor give.  
 So God decrees : his high resolves I bear."  
 The hero heard his voice with awful fear :  
 Passion no more his soul relenting feels,  
 Lowly before the fainted king he kneels ;  
 Soft tears of gratitude bedew his face :  
 'Thrice would his longing arms the saint embrace,  
 'Thrice from his touch the airy form retires,  
 As the thin vapour which in air transpires.' P. 146.

In this passage the first lines are far from being equal to the original.

————— du profond d'une nuë  
 Un fantôme éclatant se présente à la vuë.  
 Son corps majestueux, maître des élémens,  
 Descendoit vers Bourbon sur les ailes des vents.  
 De la divinité les vives étincelles  
 Etoient sur son front des beautés immortelles.

A spirit ' descending from the skies,' offers a weaker image than one which presents itself from the depth of a cloud ; and the scriptural nobleness of the expression, ' he descended upon the wings of the winds,' is lost in the corresponding line of the translation. The speech of Louis too is weakened. In the original, it conveys admonition in the language of reproach.

Tu vas abandonner aux flammes, au pillage,  
 De cent rois tes ayeux l'immortel héritage ;  
 Ravager ton pays, mes temples, tes trefors,  
 Egorger tes sujets, et régner sur des morts.

The English imperative, though apparently more commanding, is less forcible than this language. In the lines im-

mediately following, the translation is superior to the original.

The line—

‘ Mercy shall more than force or valor give,’

is more obscure than the French passage :

Dans Paris, ô mon fils, tu rentreras vainqueur,  
Pour prix de ta clémence, et non de ta valeur.

The description of the palace of Love is a favourable specimen of the poem and translation.

‘ There, to the laughing God, in flow’rs array’d,  
The graceful throng their daily homage paid,  
And study’d at his shrine the fatal art  
To please, seduce, and captivate the heart.  
Young Hope, in flatt’ring smiles for ever gay,  
To Love’s mysterious altar leads the way :  
The Graces round, half-veil’d and half in sight,  
Enticing motion with their voice unite ;  
While Indolence, luxurious, stretch’d along,  
Listless and loit’ring, listens to the song.  
There, silent Myst’ry, with the veil she wears,  
And eyes conversing with the soul, appears ;  
Attentive tender Cares, and Sports, and Smiles,  
And wanton Mirth, and all that thought beguiles ;  
Lascivious pleasures, group’d with graceful ease,  
With soft Desires that more than Pleasure please.

‘ Such the delightful entrance of the dome :  
But farther, if with guardless step you roam  
And thro’ the deep recess audacious pry,  
What alter’d scenes of mis’ry strike your eye !

‘ No pleasures form’d in playful groups invite,  
No dulcet sounds the ravish’d ears delight ;  
No tender cares :—but in their place appear  
Sullen Complaint, and cloy’d Disgust, and Fear ;  
There, fever’d Jealousy with livid hue,  
Unwinds with falt’ring steps Suspicion’s clew ;  
Arm’d with the blood-stain’d instruments of death,  
There, Rage and Hatred spread their poison’d breath ;  
While Malice, brooding over secret guile,  
Repay’s their labours with a treach’rous smile ;  
Remorse, that never sleeps, brings up their rear,  
Hates his own deeds, and drops a barren tear.

‘ There, Love, capricious child, has fix’d his reign,  
With Pains and Pleasures for his motley train ;  
Cruel and kind by turns, but ever blind,  
That dear delight, that torment of mankind,



Thro' ev'ry camp, thro' ev'ry senate glides,  
 Commands the warrior, o'er the judge presides;  
 Still welcome to the heart, he still deceives,  
 Pants in each breast, and thro' all nature lives.' P. 200.

The image of Jealousy is better in the original; that of Remorse is improved by the translator. There is a disagreeable rhyme in the line,

'Cruel and kind by turns, but ever blind.'

The version, upon the whole, is executed with ability; and we only lament that the labour and skill of the translator were not employed upon a better poem. Voltaire may pass for an excellent epic writer in France, where so few rivals appear in that department; but, in other countries, the name of the poet will not atone for the insipidity of the poem.

The translator is said to be a gentleman of Bath. We are pleased to see a respectable and numerous list of subscribers to a version so justly entitled to praise, and published with a motive so meritorious as that of alleviating distress.

*Nereis Britannica; or a Botanical Description of British Marine Plants, in Latin and English, accompanied with Drawings from Nature. By John Stackhouse, Esq. Fellow of the Linnean Society. Number II. Folio. 12s. 6d. Robinsons. 1797.*

HAVING given an account of the first number of this valuable publication \*, and not only traced out the general plan of the work, but also illustrated its particular mode of execution by exhibiting an entire article both in Latin and in English, we now proceed to notice the prefatory discourse to this second fasciculus, which is in fact a continuation and extension of the physiological observations on the structure and fructification of fuci, contained in the preface to the first.

Having procured a good compound microscope, Mr. Stackhouse began his new series of observations on the terminating fruit of the fucus serratus.

'Having found some of these in maturity, which was evident from their yellow colour, and a sort of semi-transparency, and, likewise, from the apertures of the external tubercles discharging mucus plentifully, I cut out a transverse slice from the middle, and, having pared off the internal skin on each side of a part of it, I placed the piece on the field of my compound microscope fitted with the lowest power (No. 6). I perceived that the internal substance, which appeared glossy and colourless to the naked eye, was in fact a beautiful network of capillary threads with orbicular masses or

\* See our *XVIIIth Volume*, New Arr. p. 419.

granules of a different substance, darker coloured, and not reticulated. These masses were either near the internal coat; or adhering to it, and were furnished with five or six pear-shaped seeds each. The external tubercles, of which there were five in the piece under examination, had very sensible apertures, as viewed under the glass, and communicated with the internal process. Having made this discovery with my weakest power at first, to guard against optical deception, I applied my highest powers (No. 1. 2.) to the same object: with these I plainly perceived that the reticulated transparent fibres, or threads, were in reality tubes forming meshes, and intersecting each other; and furnished at intervals with transparent septa, or divisions.

My next attention was paid to the fruit of the bladder fucus in the same state of maturity. I cut out a slice containing a part of the external coat, and some of the internal clear mucus, which was solid enough to bear cutting, and submitted it to investigation under the different powers abovementioned. The same internal structure was visible, but much more beautifully arranged, which arose probably from the fruit having its coats more expanded, and consequently affording more room on the inside. In this, likewise, as the cut was made through the external tubercle, the passage from thence to the internal orbicular masses was very conspicuous. Having met with *F. bifurcatus* of major Velley, the *F. tuberculatus* of Hudson, and of the Linnean Transactions, in full fruit, with the summits beautifully transparent, and shewing the granules to the naked eye, when held up to the light, I cut the summit down lengthways, and took out a slice, and submitted it to investigation, and the internal structure was perfectly analogous to those before described. I have had opportunities during the course of the last year of repeating my experiments on these plants at my leisure, and, likewise, of extending them to the fruit pods of the kindred species—*F. nodosus*, *F. spiralis*, *F. canaliculatus*, &c. I pursued the same mode of cutting a transverse slice from the middle of the pod, and was happy to find a perfect analogy in their mode of fructification: the only specific distinctions I found, were in the form of the meshes, in the size and shape of the seeds, and in the number contained in each orbicular mass.

A similar mode of fructification I observed in some species of fuci, differing widely in habit from those already mentioned, and not having an appropriate fruit-pod. Among these are to be reckoned the *F. loreus*, a succulent plant with masses of seeds, and internal tubercles throughout its whole length. This plant, on having transverse slices cut through it, shews the tubular organization and the masses of seeds, but with this difference, that the tubes, though occasionally intersecting each other, are in general flexuous and wavy; the granules, or masses of seeds in this species, contain from three to six each. *F. tamariscifolius* has its summits above the imbedded bladder pretty much swollen at the time of

fruiting, and the dissecting knife discovers the tubular process, and the masses of seeds: *F. caespitosus*, a very minute species recently discovered by me, has a similar fructification, and it may fairly be concluded that many of the shrubby fuci do not differ essentially from those already described.

It having been hinted to me from high botanical authority that the pear-shaped bodies described and figured by me, as they appear in the compound microscope, might not be real seeds, but only gems, or particles of the medullary substance of the different plants; as it seemed impossible from their extreme minuteness to dissect their component parts with sufficient accuracy, in order to insure conviction, I resolved to procure, if possible, the spontaneous discharge of the seeds in sea water, in order to submit them to a more accurate examination. I likewise conceived the idea that I might close my experiment by sowing the seeds on sea pebbles, and by alternate immersions and emersions procure seedling plants from those seeds. I selected three species, viz. *F. serratus*, *F. canaliculatus*, and *F. bifurcatus*. I carefully detached these plants with their bases uninjured from the rock, and placed them in wide-mouthed glass jars, with a change of sea water every twelve hours. In the course of a week I succeeded in procuring the seeds, which now appeared oval rather than pear-shaped, and, when ripe, burst asunder transversely in the middle with an explosion: these seeds were inclosed in a bright mucus immiscible with sea water, and likewise specifically heavier than it; so as to serve the double purpose of carrying them to the bottom, and of affixing them to the rock when settled there by their gravity. This spontaneous discharge of similar shaped bodies, all inclosed in a glassy mucus, and all opening transversely, would hardly have needed the additional corroboration of causing them to vegetate in order to evince their being actual seeds; this, however, I likewise happily accomplished \*.

P. ix.

At the conclusion of the preface to the first fasciculus, a persuasion was expressed, that the families of these marine plants would be properly arranged, and discriminations of

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\* As many curious persons, who occasionally visit sea-bathing places, may be desirous of ascertaining these facts under their own eyes, I shall detail the experiments I made. Having procured a number of wide-mouthed jars, together with a syphon to draw off the water without shaking or disturbing it, on September 7, 1796, I placed my plants carefully in the jars with their bases downwards, as in their natural state; on the following morning I decanted off the sea water, and, letting it subside in the basin, I found a few particles at bottom, which, on being viewed in the microscope, appeared to be little fragments detached from the surface by friction in carriage. I then poured a fresh quantity of sea water on the plants, and placed them in a window facing south: on the following morning the jar containing the plants of *F. canaliculatus* discharged into the basin a few yellowish grains, which, on examining them, I found to be the actual seeds of the plant; they were rather oval than pear-shaped, but the most curious circumstance attending the observation was,

essential character would be prefixed to each, at a period not very distant; and, indeed, the discoveries of our author have enabled him to sketch out a new arrangement of the plants hitherto, however discordantly, huddled together under the name of fuci. He divides them into six genera, assigning to each genus its subordinate species, according to the different modes of fructification. We shall present our readers with the characters of these genera; but must refer them to the work itself for the distribution of the species, and for a variety of curious particulars. We are introduced to the new distribution by this remark:

‘The anomaly that prevails respecting the plants which constitute the genus *fucus* is confessed by every writer, and however feeble the attempt here made to substitute a better arrangement, it is hoped it may stimulate abler botanists to unite their labours, in endeavouring to remove the opprobrium that rests on this part of the class *cryptogamia*.’

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that each individual seed was not in contact with the water, but enveloped with a bright mucilaginous substance. It was easy to guess the wise æconomy of nature in this disposition, which, as hinted above, serves a double purpose; each equally necessary towards continuing the species. On the following morning a greater quantity of seeds were discharged by this plant, and at this time a few seeds were procured from *F. serratus*; but this latter plant discharged such a quantity of mucous fluid, that the sea water in which the plant was immersed was of the consistence of thin syrup, and, consequently, the seeds being kept suspended, it was difficult to separate them. The seeds of *F. canaliculatus*, however, were numerous, and visible to the naked eye, and, after letting the water rest for a few minutes, it was no difficult matter by gently inclining the basin to pour off the water, and let the seeds remain. In performing this operation I was witness to an explosion or bursting of one of these seeds or pericarps, which agitated the water considerably under the microscope, and brought to my recollection the circumstance mentioned by major Velley during his investigation of *F. vesiculosus*. I at last obtained a discharge of seeds likewise from *F. bifurcatus*; these perfectly resembled the others. Having established this point, viz. that marine plants scatter their seeds in their native element without violence, when ripe, and without awaiting the decay of the frond, I next procured some sea pebbles and small fragments of rock taken from the beach, and, after having drained off the greatest part of the water in the jar, I poured the remainder on the pebbles. I left them dry for some time that they might affix themselves: I then fastened strings to them, and alternately sunk them in sea water in a wide-mouthed stone jar, and left them exposed to the air, in order to imitate as nearly as possible their peculiar situation between high and low water-mark, and when the weather was rainy I took care to expose them to it. In less than a week a thin membrane was discoverable on the surface of the pebble where the seeds had lodged with a naked eye: this gradually extended itself, and turned to a darkish olive colour. It continued increasing in size till at last there appeared mucous papillæ, or buds coming up from the membrane: these buds when viewed in the glass were rather hollow in the centre, from whence a shrout pushed forth: in some instances they seemed to rise on a short thick footstalk, and in this latter case resembled in some measure the peziza-formed seedling of *F. loreus* (see pl. xii. A. B.), and the others without stems were like the stemless pezizæ.

' *Fucus.*

' CHAR. GEN.—Fructificatio mucosa, pellucida, granulis sub-orbicularibus seminiferis intus: papillis conicis foratis extus-terminalis.

' *CERAMIVM.*

' CHAR. GEN.—Fructificatio mucosa, pellucida, sine granulis seminiferis: papillis invisibilibus—per totam frondem.

' *CHONDRVS.*

' CHAR. GEN.—Pericarpium ovatum, immersum, utrinque prominens; seminulis intus in muco pellucido.

' *SPHÆROCOCCVS.*

' CHAR. GEN.—Granula seminifera sub-orbicularia; adnata vel immersa; sessilia vel pedunculata.

' *CHORDA.*

' CHAR. GEN.—Fructificatio mucosa in cavitate frondis cylindricæ: seminulis glomeratis, nudis, cuti adhærentibus.

' *CODIVM.*

' CHAR. GEN.—Fructificatio in tubulis implicatis—frons cylindrico-compressa; statu madido, spongiformis; sicco, tomentosa.

' *Fucus.*

' FRUCTIFICATION.—A jelly-like mass, with imbedded seed-bearing granules and external conical papillæ—terminating\*.

' *CERAMIVM.*

' FRUCTIFICATION.—A jelly-like mass, without the seed-bearing granules: internal, universal: papillæ invisible.

' *CHONDRVS.*

' FRUCTIFICATION.—An ovate, rigid, imbedded pericarp, containing seeds in a clear mucus, and prominent in either surface.

' *SPHÆROCOCCVS.*

' FRUCTIFICATION.—External globular pericarps, adnate or immersed; sessile or pedunculate; containing seeds as above.

' *CHORDA.*

' FRUCTIFICATION.—A mucous fluid in the hollow part of a cylindrical frond, with naked seeds affixed inwardly.

' *CODIVM.*

' FRUCTIFICATION.—Invisible; frond roundish; soft and spongy when wet; velvety, when dry.

We afterwards meet with a synoptic table of the species, arranged under their respective genera; and, in the Latin preface, we have a summary view of the recent discoveries of our botanist with regard to the structure and fructification of the species figured and described in his first fasciculus. His observations have convinced us, that neither the air-bladders,

\* \* The physiological observations detailed above apply to this genus exclusively.

nor the mucous glands opening on the surface, of the *F. vesiculofus* and *ferratus*, have any concern with the fructification, and that the pencils of fibres, fringing the mouths of these glands, are merely inspissated mucus.

This number contains the characters, synonyms, descriptions, and coloured figures of twenty species, viz. *F. saccharinus*, *phyllitis*, *nodosus*, *loreus*, *filum*, *filiculofus*, *tamariscifolius*, *osmunda*, *pinnatifidus*, *lacerus*, *jubatus*, *stellatus*, *palmaris*, *edulis*, *cæspitosus*, *corneus*, *crispus*, *echinatus*, *sedoides*, *thrix*. Ten of these are now figured for the first time, and four of them are entirely new.

Whether Mr. Stackhouse's arrangement of this tribe of plants be or be not received by the generality of botanists, it must be admitted that the attempt is worthy of praise; and the publication of his synopsis will probably stimulate other cultivators of this science either to aim at the improvement of his plan, or at the formation of a new one; and we hope that the discoveries which he has already made will ensure a continuation of his zeal and diligence.

From a transient view of the species of fuci which yet remain to be described and figured, we think it probable that a third fasciculus, larger than the second, may complete the work.

*Memoirs of the Life and Administration of Sir Robert Walpole, by William Coxe. (Continued from p. 141.)*

SO copious and so important are these Memoirs, that we could not, with due respect to the work, conclude our account in one article; and the extent of the correspondence will require a continuation of our remarks in a subsequent number.

Having brought down our last survey to the time of the decease of George I. we enter upon a reign in which Sir Robert Walpole had even a greater sway than he before enjoyed, though, on the accession of the new king, he was in danger of losing his interest at court by the superior influence of Sir Spencer Compton. The circumstances by which his dismissal was prevented, have been mentioned in our review of the works of his son Horace\*. His principal friend, on that occasion, was Queen Caroline, who had a much greater influence in political affairs than she is generally supposed to have had. The Tories, to whom his talents and spirit rendered him highly obnoxious, were extremely chagrined at the establishment of his power; and they resolved to exert all

\* See the 251st page of our present volume.

their efforts against him, in conjunction with associates who were equally discontented.

It was at this period (says Mr. Coxe) that the opposition began to form itself into consistency, and to compose a firm and compact phalanx.

‘ Until the death of George the First, the component parts of this heterogeneous body, which consisted of a few disappointed Whigs, Tories, and Jacobites, did not cordially coalesce. Many of those Whigs and moderate Tories, who looked up to that event as a prelude to their own admission into the ministry, kept aloof from those who, as being professed Jacobites, or violent Tories, could not expect the same success. But no sooner had the continuance of Walpole in office annihilated their hopes, than the whole body became compact and united. In this respect, the Whigs became Tories, the Tories Whigs; and the Jacobites assumed every shape which tended to promote their views, by distressing government, and harassing the minister, whom they considered as the great supporter of the house of Brunswick.

‘ The chief aim of the minister was to comprehend almost all the Tories as enemies to the government, by the name of Jacobites, or at least to give that stigma to every one who was not a professed and known Whig. With this view, his own administration being naturally supported on a Whig foundation, he endeavoured to attach to himself all those who had been dependent on Sunderland. With some he succeeded, but not with all; and of those whom he could not gain, several remained in their employments, because they were protected by the Hanover junto. This body of Whigs, small but of considerable eminence, remained his enemies to the time of the king’s death, watching for every opportunity to ruin him; and from the accession of George the Second, commenced the opposition which became afterwards so troublesome and formidable.’ Vol. i. p. 293.

The first treaty that was signed after the confirmation of Walpole’s power by the new sovereign, was that which was adjusted with the duke of Brunswick-Wolfenbittel. This compact seems to have been too unimportant, and the aid which was expected from the duke was too contemptible, to justify the observations which follow :

‘ This treaty, negotiated between lord Townshend and count Dehn, the confidential minister of the duke of Brunswick, was signed at Wolfenbittel, on the 23d of November 1727. It stipulated a renewal of the family compact, according to the treaty of the 6th of May 1661, by which Brunswick was to be kept for the common safety of the house of Lunenburgh, and not delivered up to any other power; a mutual guaranty of dominions; mutual assistance in case of attack; a subsidy of £.25,000 a year, during four years, to the duke of Brunswick, who was to furnish at least

5,000 men. This treaty, if considered in its general effects and tendency to the pacification of Germany, was a master-piece of policy: it united the two branches of the house of Lunenburg, who had been long at variance; and by preventing the progress of the Imperial arms, saved the electorate of Hanover from hostile inroads.' Vol. i. p. 302.

Sir Robert's pacific disposition manifested itself in his promotion of the treaty of Seville; and, when it was apprehended that the emperor would oppose the execution of a part of that treaty, the minister exerted his influence with such success, that the court of Vienna agreed to an accommodation.

The capacity of the duke of Newcastle, one of Walpole's associates in the administration, has been contemptuously depreciated by many writers; but Mr. Coxe affirms, that

' he had much better abilities than are usually attributed to him. He had a quick comprehension; he was an useful and frequent debater in the house of peers; had an answer ready on all occasions, and spoke with great animation, though with little arrangement, and without grace or dignity. He wrote with uncommon facility, and with such fluency of words, that no one ever used a greater variety of expressions; and it is a remarkable circumstance, that in his most confidential letters, written with such expedition as to be almost illegible, there is scarcely a single erasure or alteration.' Vol. i. p. 328.

The transactions of sir Robert's government are circumstantially related by our author, more particularly after the resignation of lord Townshend, whose retreat left the former without a rival at court. He continued his endeavours to maintain peace, and promote the commercial prosperity of the nation. But his alienation of the sinking fund was a practice which we cannot approve; and Mr. Coxe admits, that ' it is a dark speck in his financial administration.'

The obnoxious scheme of excise occupies a long chapter; but we do not perceive any novelty in the report of the proceedings.

In the account of the debate on the motion for a repeal of the septennial act, Mr. Coxe censures those ' partial reporters' who have not taken notice of the minister's reply to sir William Wyndham's celebrated speech; and he seems to think that no late writers have mentioned the answer; but an inspection of the last general history of England would have undeceived him.

When a continental war broke out in 1733, George II. was desirous of engaging in it; but Walpole studiously checked his eagerness; and his persuasions were urged with efficacy. The minister was likewise successful in dissuading the king



from a league, which he wished to form with the courts of Stockholm and Copenhagen.

The progress of the misunderstanding between the king and his son is related by our author with some degree of candor; and Walpole is justly blamed for his conduct on the occasion.

‘It cannot be denied that the conduct of the prince had given great and deserved offence to the king and queen, and that in particular his behaviour to the queen had been highly disrespectful, yet it cannot at the same time be sufficiently lamented, that the minister involved in the interests of party, the feuds of the royal family. He considered the struggle as much between himself and opposition, as between the king and prince, and knowing the prince’s aversion to his ministry, viewed a cordial reconciliation as tending to his removal.’ Vol. i. p. 539.

The disinclination of sir Robert to a rupture with Spain is noticed with due approbation by his biographer; and, after a detail of the circumstances which led to a declaration of war, and of the difficulties in which his reluctance involved him, we find these remarks:

‘Thus situated, and thus embarrassed, thwarted by the king, counteracted by the cabinet, reviled by the nation, and compelled to declare war against his own opinion, a simple and natural question arises; Why did he not resign? Why did he still maintain a post exposed to so many difficulties, and subject to so much obloquy? His intimate friends urged him to take this step, when the convention [*with Spain*] was carried in the house of commons by a majority of 28. In fact, he did request the king’s permission to resign. He stated his embarrassments: he observed, that his opposition to this war would be always imputed as a crime, and that any ill success in carrying it on would be attributed to him. The king remonstrated against this resolution, exclaiming, “Will you desert me in my greatest difficulties?” and refused to admit his resignation. The minister reiterated his wishes, and the king again imposed silence in so authoritative a manner, that he acquiesced, and remained at the helm.

‘But his compliance with the king’s commands is by no means sufficient for his justification. Had he come forward on this occasion, and declared that he had opposed the war as unjust, and contrary to the interests of his country, but finding that the voice of the people was clamorous for hostilities, he had therefore quitted a station which he could not preserve with dignity, as he was unwilling to conduct the helm of government, when he could not guide it at his own discretion, and to be responsible for measures which he did not approve; had he acted this noble and dignified part, he would have risen in the opinion of his own age, and have secured the applause of posterity.

† The consequence of his continuance in office was repeated mortifications from those with whom he acted, and insults from those who opposed him, and that in less than two years from this period, he was reduced to a compulsory resignation.

‘ The truth is, that he had neither resolution, or inclination to persevere in a sacrifice which circumstances seemed to require, and to quit a station which long possession had endeared to him. But ministers are but men; human nature does not reach to perfection; and who ever quitted power without a sigh, or looked back to it without regret?’ Vol. i. p. 625.

The ill success of the war gave such vigour to the assaults which were made upon Walpole by his parliamentary opponents, that he began to despair of preserving his station, and was at length, in 1742, constrained to resign.

‘ It is asserted that the minister would have sooner retired, if the state of the nation and of parties had not rendered his continuance in power necessary for the arrangement of a new administration, and for preserving the tranquillity of the country; and that he continued in office solely in compliance with the wishes of his friends. The papers which have been committed to my inspection, and the undoubted information which I have received, enable me to contradict this assertion. He retired unwillingly and slowly: no shipwrecked pilot ever clung to the rudder of a sinking vessel with greater pertinacity than he did to the helm of state, and he did not relinquish his post until he was driven from it by the desertion of his followers and the clamours of the public. Speaker Onslow, who knew him well, declared that he reluctantly quitted his station; and if any doubt still remains, we have the testimony of the minister. “ I must inform you,” he observes in a letter to the duke of Devonshire, “ that the panic was so great among, what shall I call them, my own friends, that they all declared that my retiring was become absolutely necessary, as the only means to carry on the public business with honour and success.”

‘ It has been also asserted with no less confidence, that the king himself was become weary of a minister, who had so long directed his affairs, who had so often opposed and obstructed his inclination for war, and who was still endeavouring to remove every obstacle which impeded the return of peace. But the same documents enable me to adduce an honourable testimony of the good faith and firmness of George the Second. Although the asperities which time and vexation occasioned in both their tempers, produced a momentary dissatisfaction, yet the king had contracted, by long habit and experience of his capacity for business, a high regard and esteem for his long-tried counsellor. In vain the earl of Wilmington and the duke of Dorset had enforced the necessity of his removal, the resolution of the king was unshaken, and he did not con-

sent to his resignation until the minister himself made it his express desire.

‘ The interview when he took leave of the king was highly affecting. On kneeling down to kiss his hand, the king burst into tears, and the ex-minister was so moved with that instance of regard, that he continued for some time in that posture; and the king was so touched, that he was unable to raise him from the ground. When he at length rose, the king testified his regret for the loss of so faithful a counsellor, expressed his gratitude for his long services, and his hopes of receiving advice on important occasions.’ Vol. i. p. 695.

After his retreat from the helm, he triumphed over those who wished to substantiate heavy charges against him; but he did not enjoy many years of retirement; for he died in the spring of the year 1745.

His character is fully given by Mr. Coxe; but it will be sufficient to exhibit some *traits* of it.

‘ His eloquence was plain, perspicuous, forcible, and manly, not courting, yet not always avoiding metaphorical, ornamental, and classical allusions; though addressed to the reason more than to the feelings, yet on some occasions it was highly animated and impassioned. No debater was ever more happy in quickness of apprehension, sharpness of reply, and in turning the arguments of his assailants against themselves.

‘ The tone of his voice was pleasing and melodious; his pronunciation distinct and audible, though he never entirely lost the provincial accent. His style, though by no means elegant, often deficient in taste, and sometimes bordering on vulgarity, was highly nervous and animated, persuasive and plausible.’ Vol. i. p. 749.

‘ Good temper and equanimity were his leading characteristics, and the placability imprinted on his countenance was not belied by his conduct. Of this disposition, his generous rival, Pulteney, thought so highly, that, in a conversation with Johnson, he said, “ Sir Robert was of a temper so calm and equal, and so hard to be provoked, that he was very sure he never felt the bitterest invectives against him for half an hour.”

‘ His deportment was manly and decisive, yet affable and condescending; he was easy of access; his manner of bestowing a favour heightened the obligation; and his manner of declining was so gracious that few persons went out of his company discontented.’ Vol. i. p. 756.

‘ His conversation was sprightly, animated, and facetious, yet occasionally coarse and vulgar, and too often licentious to an unparagonable degree.

‘ In company with women he assumed an air of gallantry, which

even in his younger days was ill-suited to his manner and character, but in his latter years was totally incompatible with his age and figure. He affected in his conversation with the sex a trifling levity; but his gaiety was rough and boisterous, his wit too often coarse and licentious.' Vol. i. p. 756.

He was, from his early youth, fond of the diversions of the field, and retained this taste till prevented by the infirmities of age. He was accustomed to hunt in Richmond park with a pack of beagles. On receiving a packet of letters he usually opened that from his game-keeper first; and he was fond of sitting for his picture in his sporting dress. He was, like chancellor Oxenstiern, a sound sleeper, and used to say, "that he put off his cares with his cloaths." Vol. i. p. 759.

The first volume terminates with a metrical (but not very poetical) panegyric upon this great minister, written by Sir Charles Hanbury Williams.

*(To be continued.)*

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*The Morbid Anatomy of some of the most important Parts of the Human Body. By Matthew Baillie, M. D. F. R. S. &c. The second Edition, corrected and considerably enlarged. 8vo. 7s. Boards. Johnson. 1797.*

THE former edition of this work \* was a meagre collection of those deviations in the structure of the body, supposed to be produced by disease, which sometimes were accidental changes in appearance, sometimes varieties of form, within the limits of health. That the dissections might be rendered important and valuable, it was necessary to premise the symptoms, trace them in the subsequent changes, and distinguish, in these, the cause from the effect. The deficiency of the symptoms we formerly noticed; and the remark may have occasioned the additions which we observe in this volume; but they are introduced with so little discrimination of their connection with anatomical appearances, that they do not greatly add to the value of the work. We may make another remark, which is, that, though Dr. Baillie speaks of having chiefly observed these morbid changes himself, many of them have been described by others; and we see little use in multiplying observations of the same kind, merely because they have occurred to ourselves.

As a specimen of the additions, we will select an account of the symptoms connected with the morbid appearances described in our survey of the first edition.

\* When water is accumulated in the pericardium, the symptoms

are found to resemble very much those belonging to hydrothorax, and have not been clearly distinguished from them by authors. These symptoms will be afterwards mentioned when we come to hydrothorax. It may perhaps serve as some imperfect ground of distinction between the two diseases, that the feeling of oppression is more accurately confined to the situation of the heart, and the heart is more disturbed in its functions, in dropsy of the pericardium, than in hydrothorax. It ought at the same time to be remarked, that the two diseases are often blended together, and where, of course, these grounds of distinction cannot be applied.

‘ The case of scrofulous tumours growing upon the inside of the pericardium, which we have described, was combined with tubercles of the lungs; and the person died with the common symptoms of pulmonary consumption. Nothing occurred which led to any suspicion of a disease in the pericardium. It seems to me reasonable to suppose, that when scrofulous tumours grow in the pericardium, there will hardly be any inconvenience felt while they are small. But when they enlarge very much in size, they will necessarily prevent the full dilatation of the heart, and disturb its functions. This, however, will probably be very difficult to be distinguished from the disturbance produced by other causes, which must in the same manner impede the free action of the heart; as, for instance, the accumulation of water in the pericardium.

‘ The symptoms produced by a want of secretion in the pericardium are at present unknown.’ P. 17.

No symptoms attending the cases of a mal-conformation of the heart are described, except the color cœruleus. But, in several cases of this kind, irregularity of pulse, an indistinct flutter on the least motion, and occasional faintness, are among the symptoms; and these, though not characteristic of any one organical disease of the heart, will, with the blue complexion, point out the existence of some defect which prevents the passage of the whole circulatory fluid through the lungs.

‘ When ossification of the pleura is of small extent, respiration cannot be affected by it; but when it is large it must produce difficulty of breathing, either by preventing the full expansion of the lungs, or the free motion of the ribs, according to its situation. Some instances are known of respiration being injured from this cause.’ P. 61.

We have transcribed this paragraph to show how loosely the symptoms are connected with the changes. No reason is assigned for distinguishing difficulty of respiration from this cause; and there can be little doubt, that, with an extensive ossification of the pleura, many other changes, which would impede respiration, also occur.

Other objections may be made to some of the additions.

There is not always an adhesion, in the intus-fusceptio, between the external gut and the part within it, so as to render a cure desperate. In three instances, we have seen that the usual structure could be without any violence restored, after death. Two instances of certain inflammation of the stomach we have seen, besides a doubtful one; but vomiting did not occur: this therefore is not a constant symptom. In the scirrhus colon or rectum, costiveness is not constant: a slight diarrhoea generally intervenes; and the relief is not felt from the latter, but from the regular stool. Our author erroneously affirms, that it is of little consequence to discriminate between the inflammation of the liver and the lower part of the lungs, as the practice is the same. Would he give the active purgatives in the latter, as in the former? Would he, in the inflammation of the liver, make it his sole aim to promote expectoration? The distinction, we know, is difficult; and, when either part is violently affected, a part of the neighbouring organ suffers, so that the diseases are often mixed. We have found this complication very dangerous. It constitutes the bilious peripneumony of the French authors; and we have not found any other plan so useful as that of giving purgatives more freely, than in common cases of peripneumony, and following the indications drawn from the adjuvantia and lædētia.

We are sorry that we cannot give our applause to Dr. Baillie's labours in this edition; but, when we observe a want of care and attention, it is our duty to animadvert upon the writer's negligence.

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*A Sketch of Modern France. In a Series of Letters to a Lady of Fashion. Written in the Years 1796 and 1797, during a Tour through France. By a Lady. Edited by C. L. Moody, LL. D. F. A. S. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

ACCOUNTS of the state of France, when written with a strict regard to veracity, claim the attention of the public. But, amidst the present distractions of party, perfect accuracy of statement cannot be expected; and the bias of the writer will appear, in different degrees, in every work in which politics are introduced.

Though there is frequent deception in a title-page and in a preface, we have no reason to doubt the assertion, that this work was composed from the journal of a lady who was really a traveller in France. The letters (says the editor) 'are simply the journal of an English lady,' who visited France with her husband, 'a military gentleman and a foreigner;' and, as they were written on the spur of the occa-

sion, and involved the mention of private as well as public affairs, they 'required some abridgment and correction to fit them for publication.'

When the vessel in which our traveller sailed from Dover had reached the French coast (in October, 1796), it was boarded by a party of soldiers and seamen; and it was not without difficulty that the captain could procure permission to enter the harbour, or the lady to disembark. Her account of Calais we shall only notice so far as it relates to the good fortune of that and the neighbouring towns, amidst the rage of revolutionary barbarity. This department (it is said) 'escaped, for the most part, if not entirely, the scenes of horror and blood' which disgraced Arras, Cambray, &c. through the 'judicious choice' of magistrates by the people. But Robespierre, if he had been unfavourably disposed towards the inhabitants of that department, might easily have introduced magistrates of his own complexion.

In her progress to Paris, the lady had many opportunities of detecting the falsehood of the reports which she had heard in England, respecting the great neglect of agriculture in France. 'On the contrary (she says), not an inch of ground is left unworked, and the plough literally visits the very brink of the hedges along the roads.'

On her arrival in the French metropolis, she was particularly eager to visit the Luxembourg palace, the seat of the directory. Workmen of all descriptions were then employed in repairing and embellishing that magnificent edifice. Being present at a public audience there given, the writer has thus recounted some of the particulars which she observed.

'The petitioners are admitted within a kind of barrier which divides the room by the huissiers, (who are dressed in a costume truly Vandyke,) and there seat themselves on *fauteuils* or arm-chairs ranged in a circular form, whilst the lookers-on are only permitted to stand in the background; but being introduced as a stranger, I had *l'honneur de la séance*, and was consequently admitted within the circle.

'In a few minutes the director entered the apartment, wearing the grand costume, also *à la Vandyke*, superb and extremely costly. As soon as he presented himself, the men uncovered, and a kind of silent respect seemed to diffuse itself round the room; which could scarcely have been carried to greater lengths in the old regime; the appearance of state and the number of the military dispersed in various parts of the apartments, may probably, in some degree, influence the minds of the people. Splendor and magnificence commonly produce this effect, and hence results the propriety of a magistrate wearing an appropriate dignified dress when in the execution of his high office. The impressions of respect

stamped on the mind of the vulgar by the same person, in scarlet robes trimmed with ermine, and in a brown coat, bob-wig, and dirty boots, would be very different.

The petitioners draw near the director, and are presented by the principal huissier, one by one. He takes the petitions, reads a part, inquires into the cause of their grievances; and the answer, a week after, is found in an office erected for that purpose at the bottom of the grand staircase, called *l'office des renseignements*. As soon as the whole of the petitions have been received, one of the huissiers demands aloud, whether there be any person desirous of speaking to the director, when being answered in the negative, he retires, and the people disperse.

One trait which gave me singular satisfaction, was the manner in which he attended to all, though more particularly to the sorrowful tale of a wretched-looking woman, who had two children with her, and one at the breast. This poor creature was the widow of a soldier, who had lately fallen for his country, and left her destitute. Twice he heard her melancholy story, and then bade her seat herself near the fire, until he could determine something in her favour. This I thought foreboded a good heart, and I was pleased with the man; but the appearance of the woman was, in one respect, truly risible, forming a singular contrast by her rags and tatters with the beautiful ornaments that surrounded her; for the apartment is precisely the same as when inhabited by monsieur, not any of the furniture having been removed.

The hangings are of crimson damask, with a gold border, curtains, sofa, and *fauteuils* the same, with the addition of a deep gold fringe. The glasses are elegant; two of the doors have looking-glasses in the pannels; a noble chandelier graces the middle of the room, while others of less size hang near the chimney; the whole displaying vast taste and elegance.' P. 157.

After a slight sketch of several public buildings, we are presented with an account of those in which the two councils deliberate, and also of a debate which took place at one of the meetings. In the council of five hundred,

'many of the speakers were so vehement in their oratory as frequently to occasion the greatest irregularity and confusion. Those, however, who are not engaged in the debates, display great indifference, conversing among themselves as if the affairs of their country were not under discussion, and no otherwise evince their sentiments or party, than by their yes or no.' P. 188.

It was not absolutely necessary for the lady to add the remark which follows, as the point to which it relates is not a matter of doubt.

'Here, as in other great assemblies, the real business seems to



be transacted by a few, and the rest are only present to sanction measures by their acquiescence.' P. 189.

Our traveller speaks favourably of the state of the arts at Paris.

'In exploring the Louvre, we paid a visit to the Museum National des Arts, which is only open for a stated time, similar to the exhibition at Somerset House. This museum is singularly worth seeing, and occupies a vast number of rooms, all in the palace; and which, from the judicious arrangement of the pictures, &c. display the artists' performances to the greatest advantage. Here we found a vast concourse of people, the admission being gratis; and seeing others go in, we naturally followed the current. We were pleased with several of the portraits, which appear to have been executed by capital masters, though we did not see any of the productions of the great David. We were rather surprised at finding at the present moment such a number of excellent performances, both in painting, drawing, and sculpture; yet it must be acknowledged, strange as it may seem, that whatever has merit or excellence, whether in literature or arts, still meets with amateurs in this great city.' P. 200.

We cannot follow the lady in her whole survey of Paris; but shall only add, that she found the inhabitants as gay, lively, and dissipated, as former visitants had described them. When she had arrived at Montereau in her way to Dijon, she was alarmed at a report that a Jacobin had denounced the town as being full of aristocrats: but the disturbance which arose on that ground was soon quelled. With an account of her progress she mingles the following observations on the French character.

'I have remarked, that the ideas and habits of the French, as may indeed naturally be supposed, partake more of the old than of the new regime. What are the charms and merits of a republican or democratic government I cannot pretend to say; but this I clearly perceive, even from the superficial view I have taken of the French people, that they are fighting and labouring to establish a system that is ill adapted to their present character.

'I shall be told, perhaps, that their character will change; this, however, must be a work of time. Nations, when they take a particular stamp or impression, lose it but slowly. The features of the French character are strong; and though I will not say that it is impossible for their present system, if it continue, to obliterate them, I must conceive it to be a more arduous and tedious task than is generally supposed. England, if I am not mistaken, was nearly twice as long under a republic as France has been, but this period was insufficient to wear away her predilection for monarchy,

and to induce her to prefer presbyterianism to the ancient forms of the established church.

‘ The present governors of France refuse to establish religion, but they cannot make the people admire the temple of reason.— They may discountenance priests, but the people are still fond of going *à la messe*. Habit and prejudice stand out a long time against political and religious innovators. It is easier to decree a republic than to suit such a people as the French are to it.

‘ People in all countries are in a great measure the creatures of political and religious institutions ; and it is highly probable that, should the French republic be able to maintain its ground, the inhabitants of this country will by degrees undergo a great change both in their sentiments and manners. These, however, I observe, are not yet republicanised ; and while so much ignorance, superstition, and profligacy prevail, I cannot allow the republic to be established.’ P. 315.

With Dijon she was greatly pleased, being inclined to believe that few places of residence are more agreeable. Here she met with a commissary from La Vendée, who accused the English, not wholly without reason, of improper conduct towards the inhabitants of that part of France.

“ I am’ (said he) ‘ a true friend to liberty, a lover of order, and an admirer of England, and have at this moment some of my family there ; yet I repeat, that the English have much to answer for, and are in great part the cause of our misery :—

“ First, in not having kept their word to my unfortunate countrymen who confided in them, in the different attacks made by the latter towards the re-establishment of royalty :—Secondly, for having given confidence and authority to individuals, who, from want of talents and character, were unworthy of the enterprises entrusted to their care :—And finally, in having continually instigated us one against the other, without even venturing any of their own troops —Oh gracious God!” said he, beating his forehead, and hastily walking up and down the room, “ what could I call it ?—but no,” added he recollecting himself, “ that cannot be.—Pardon my warmth ; we have all so cruelly suffered by such horrid manœuvres, that the Vendéans are now no longer dupes ; they are sensible they have been deceived ; and I would by no means recommend to you to cross that country at present, lest some mishap might befall you, for depend on it they are bitter enemies to the English.” P. 334.

From Burgundy our tourist hastened into Switzerland, and thence into Savoy. The easy conquest of this duchy by the French she chiefly attributes to the tyranny exercised over the Savoyards by officers who abused the weakness of his Sardinian majesty. As the people were thus insulted and harassed,

it could not be expected that they would act with spirit against the invaders of their country.

'No wonder then, if' (in the very incorrect language of the editor) 'the Savoyards, who, though never liking the French, and noted for attachment to their sovereign, were, in their own defence, obliged, as it were, to join the former when they entered this country.'

'Yet we are assured they had not the most distant idea, at that time, of uniting themselves to the French republic; so far from it, that the members of the senate, syndics, and, in fine, the whole corps of magistracy, formed for themselves a kind of constitution, which they presented to Montesquieu, who received it with much apparent satisfaction, and in return, promised them protection and assistance. Of these magistrates the people speak highly, attributing to them the tranquillity of Savoy, and the few horrors committed in it, compared with other parts of France, during the time of Robespierre and his party. Even at this moment' [Feb. 10, 1797] 'this department may be regarded as one where justice is tolerably administered, and a considerable share of humanity displayed.' P. 450.

Entering Dauphiné from Savoy, the lady visited Grenoble, which had felt little of the revolutionary violence. As she approached Lyons, her 'imagination employed itself in painful anticipation' of the uneasy sensations which the view of the ruined parts of the town would produce.

'Where we perceived the most tremendous effects of the reign of terror was on the ci-devant beautiful place Belle Cour, where several of the noble mansions, that once enriched that square, are now a heap of ruins, as well as the charming promenade, by which it was heretofore embellished, and which now scarcely exists. The quays of the Saone display the same Vandal-like fury; and the churches and convents, that were on that spot, are now in ruins. We have been informed, that on these quays, and on la place Belle-Cour the greatest cruelties were committed:—cruelties, the bare recital of which must make one shudder, exercised in cold blood against those who were suspected of royalism or federalism: for here, when the guillotine could not dispatch with sufficient expedition, guns loaded with grape-shot were employed against miserable victims tied together in rows, who fell by hundreds, and whose blood flowed like water into the Saone.' P. 477.

The volume terminates with general remarks, referring to the probability of a subversion of the republican government, to the revival of superstition among the people, the small encouragement given to the arts and sciences, the neglect of commerce, and the disorder of the finances.

The narrative sometimes exhibits an agreeable vivacity; and many parts of the volume will amuse the reader: but the information is not very important; nor do we highly approve the lady's choice of an editor, even though he adds to his name LL. D. and F. A. S.

*Essays on the Microscope; containing a practical Description of the most improved Microscopes: a general History of Insects, their Transformations, peculiar Habits, and Economy: an Account of the various Species, and singular Properties, of the Hydræ and Vorticellæ: a Description of three Hundred and eighty-three Animalculæ: with a concise Catalogue of interesting Objects: a View of the Organization of Timber, and the Configuration of Salts, when under the Microscope. Illustrated with Thirty-two Folio Plates. By the late George Adams, Mathematical Instrument Maker to his Majesty, &c. The second Edition, with considerable Additions and Improvements, by Frederick Kanmacher, F. L. S. 4to. 1l. 8s. Boards. Jones. 1798.*

IN this edition \* are some notes which are not very important, and some additions which complete the subject. These are—

- ' Accounts of the latest improvements which have been made in the construction of microscopes, particularly the lucernal.
- ' A description of the glass, pearl, &c. micrometers, as made by Mr. Coventry, and others.
- ' An arrangement and description of minute and rare shells.
- ' A descriptive list of a variety of vegetable seeds.
- ' Instructions for collecting and preserving insects, together with directions for forming a cabinet.
- ' A copious list of objects for the microscope.
- ' A list of Mr. Cusance's fine vegetable cuttings.
- ' With respect to the plates, three new engravings are introduced, viz.
- ' Plate IV. Exhibiting the most improved compound microscopes, with their apparatus.
- ' Plate XIV. Microscopical figures of minute and rare shells.
- ' Plate XV. ————— a variety of vegetable seeds.' P. xix.

Among the additions relative to the improvements of the microscope, we find a description of those which were made on Mr. Adams's lucernal microscope, chiefly by Mr. Jones,

\* For an account of the former edition, see our LXVth volume, p. 40.

and Dr. Prince, of Salem, in North-America. Mr. Jones's peculiar construction of the compound or double microscope, and some other alterations in former instruments, are subjoined by the editor.

The minute shells, described by M. Kanmacher, are those which were noticed in our LVIIIth volume\*: the vegetable seeds are those observed by Dr. Parsons.

The instructions for collecting and preserving insects are full and accurate. Some of the particulars respecting the natural history and manners of different insects are very interesting. From this part we shall extract a passage concerning silk-worms.

'The learned Dr. Bellardi, foreign member of the Linnean Society, &c. a few years since discovered a new method of feeding silk-worms, when they are hatched before the mulberry-trees have produced leaves, or when the tender branches are destroyed by frost: how far this practice may be successfully applied in other instances, seems as yet undetermined; though from some recent experiments, it appears possible that caterpillars may be thus fed in backward seasons. This method consists in giving the caterpillar the dried leaves of their accustomed food reduced to powder, and gently moistened with water; a thin coating of which must be placed round the young worms, who will immediately begin to feed upon it. The doctor informs us that the caterpillars of the silk-worm prefer it to any other food, and devour it with the utmost avidity. The leaves should be gathered towards the close of the autumn, before the frost commences, in dry weather, and when the heat is greatest; they must be dried in the sun by spreading them upon large cloths, and after being reduced into powder, laid up in a dry place. Donovan says, that the experiment has been tried with several caterpillars which were nearly full fed on the leaves of thorns and oaks thus prepared, and that they were observed to eat it when no other food was given, but he cannot determine how far they may thrive if fed on that aliment only.' p. 672.

With regard to the insect which is known in England by the name of the death-watch, there are some doubts among naturalists.

'Linnæus thus notices it; "*frequens in domibus, invisum vestibulis, herbariis, insectorum museis. Fœmina horologii instar pulsatoria in ligneis festucis.*" Syst. Nat. p. 1015. No. 2. Geoffroy, however, says he is confident that it is not from this insect, but from the *dermestes domesticus*, (Syst. Nat. p. 563, No. 12,) which makes the circular holes in furniture, that the ticking noise proceeds. Hist. des Insectes, Tom. I. p. 111. & Tom. II. p. 602. Neither of these are

larger than the *pediculus humanus*. Again, on the respectable authority of Dr. Shaw, we are assured, that the insect properly called the death watch is a coleopterous insect of the genus *ptinus*, Syst. Nat. p. 565. The doctor says, "it is chiefly in the advanced state of the spring that this alarming little insect commences its sound—the prevailing number of distinct strokes is from seven to nine or eleven—these are given in pretty quick succession, and are repeated at uncertain intervals; and in old houses, where the insects are numerous, may be heard almost every hour of the day, especially if the weather be warm. The sound exactly resembles that which may be made by beating moderately hard with the nail on a table—It is about a quarter of an inch in length." This very able naturalist has distinguished the insect by the name of *ptinus fatidicus*, the beating *ptinus*, and supposes it to be the same with the *dermestes tessellatus* of Fabricius, and the *ptinus pulsator* of Gmelin. He also cautions us "not to confound this insect, which is the real death-watch of the vulgar, emphatically so called, with another insect, which makes a sound like the ticking of a watch, and which continues its sound for a long time without intermission: it belongs to a totally different tribe from the death-watch, and is the *termes pulsatorium* of Linnæus." Every one will agree with the doctor in his remark, that, "it is a very singular circumstance that an animal so common should not be more universally known." Nat. Misc. vol. iii. p. 688.

This edition may be recommended as much more correct and complete than the former.

*Travels in Europe, Africa, and Asia, performed between the Years 1770 and 1779. By Charles Peter Thunberg, M.D. (Continued from Vol. XXII. p. 530.)*

A Nation, so remarkable as the Japanese, could not long exist without notice, when commerce or enterprise carried travellers to the remotest parts of the east. A country, inaccessible to foreigners, and presenting an impenetrable frontier to its own inhabitants, must have excited curiosity, and have given occasion for numerous fables; for those who cannot procure real information, are often willing to supply amusement from their own resources. The patient and industrious Kœmpfer was one of the first who had an opportunity of knowing the truth; and he was not anxious to embellish it: equally void of imagination and invention, he delivered a plain unvarnished tale. The present author is equally faithful and more pleasing; yet his narrative sometimes wants the little ornaments of style, and the adventitious polish of taste.

Japan is governed by laws which in general are equitable;

and the public functions are exercised with equal steadiness and impartiality. The law is supreme; and the emperor is only the first magistrate, to administer laws which he is equally bound to observe. War is almost unknown: religions, though various, inspire no animosity, and occasion no disputes. Mutual kindness and benevolence reign in every society. Foreign commerce is under many restrictions; and only the Dutch and the Chinese are allowed to trade with the inhabitants.

It was in August, 1775, that the ship in which M. Thunberg sailed arrived in the harbour of Nagasaki. The town of that name

'is one of the five towns called imperial; and, on account of its foreign commerce, is one of the greatest commercial towns in the empire. It belongs separately to the secular emperor; the revenues flow into his treasury, and a governor commands in his name.' Vol. iii. p. 38.

'This town is in its situation very much exposed; it has neither citadel, walls, nor fossé, but it has crooked streets, and a few canals dug for the purpose of carrying off the water from the surrounding mountains, which reach quite to the harbour. Before the time of the Portuguese it was only a village; but has since, by the emigrations that have been made thither on account of commerce, been extended to its present size. There are a great number of temples, and the prettiest spots imaginable on the heights surrounding the town. At each end of the streets there is a wooden gate, which can be locked, and by this means all communication with other streets cut off. At night they are always locked. In each street, which is seldom more than thirty or forty fathoms in length, and contains about the same number of houses, there is always an officer appointed to superintend and inspect it; and in like manner in each street there is a house, in which an apparatus is kept for the prevention of fire. The houses are scarcely ever two stories high, and when they are, the upper story is generally low. The town is governed by four burgomasters, who have under them a sufficient number of (*ottonas*) attendants of different ranks and degrees, by which means good order and security is procured, and maintained in the best and most ample manner.' Vol. iii. p. 80.

In the journey of the Dutch ambassador to Jedo, M. Thunberg attended him in the capacity of physician.

'How much soever the Europeans are despised in their factory, and in however contemptible a light the Japanese are used to consider all foreigners, yet it is not more surprising than true, that, in the course of our journey to and from the court, we were every

where received not only with the greatest politeness and attention, but with the same respect and esteem as is shewn to the princes of the country, when they make their journeys to the imperial court. When we arrived at the borders of a province, we were always met by an officer, sent by the lord of it, who not only offered us, in the name of his employer, every assistance that might be required with respect to people, horses, vessels, &c. but also accompanied us to the next frontiers, where he took his leave of us, and was relieved by another. The lower class of people, also, showed us the same tokens of veneration and respect, as to princes; bowing with their foreheads down to the ground, and even at times turning their backs to us, to signify, that they consider us in so high a light, that, in their extreme insignificance, they are unworthy of beholding us.' Vol. iii. p. 106.

While Jedo is the seat of the kubo, or secular sovereign of Japan, Miaco is that of the dairi, or spiritual emperor. The latter town, at which our travellers stopped in their way to Jedo,

' is not only the oldest capital, but also the largest commercial town in the empire, an advantage, for which it is indebted to its central situation. It stands on a level plain of about four leagues in length, and half a league in breadth. Here are established the greatest number, and, at the same time, the best of workmen, manufacturers, and artists, as also the most capital merchants, so that almost every thing that one can wish or desire is to be purchased here: velvets and silks wove with gold and silver; wrought metals and manufactures in gold, silver, and copper; likewise, fowls, clothes, and the best of weapons. The celebrated Japanese copper, after being roasted and smelted at the smelting-house, is refined and manufactured here. All the coin too is struck here and stamped. And as at the dairi's court all kinds of literature are encouraged and supported, as at a royal academy, therefore all books that are published, are printed here.' Vol. iii. p. 140.

The dairi was formerly the sole emperor of Japan; but, in 1142, the chief military commander began to share the government with him; and, in 1585, an ambitious general, named Taiko Samma, deprived the dairi of all power except that of a high priest; in which capacity, however, he receives such honours as almost approach to adoration.

When the party reached Jedo, the ambassador was introduced to the kubo; but he could not be said to have an audience, as he merely humbled himself before the emperor, and was then dismissed. That part of Jedo in which the kubo resides,

' is surrounded by fosses and stone walls, and separated by draw-bridges. It forms a considerable town of itself, and is said to be



five leagues in circumference. This comprises the emperor's private palace, as also that of the hereditary prince, each of which were kept separate by wide fosses, stone walls, gates, and other bulwarks. In the outermost citadel, which was the largest of all, were large and handsome covered streets, and great houses, which belonged to the princes of the country, the privy counsellors, and other officers of state. Their numerous families, who were obliged likewise to remain at the court the whole year throughout, were also lodged here.' Vol. iii. p. 189.

Of some visits made by M. Thunberg and his companions, we have this account :

' We were obliged to pay visits to all the privy counsellors, as well to the six ordinary, as to the six extraordinary, at each of their respective houses. And as these gentlemen were not yet returned from court, we were received in the most polite manner by their deputies, and exhibited to the view of their ladies and children. Each visit lasted half an hour; and we were, for the most part, so placed in a large room, that we could be viewed on all sides through thin curtains, without having the good fortune to get a sight of these court beauties, excepting at one place, where they made so free, as not only to take away the curtain, but also desired us to advance nearer. In general we were received by two gentlemen in office, and at every place treated with green tea, the apparatus for smoking, and pastry, which was set before each of us separately on small tables. We drank sometimes a cup of the boiled tea, but did not touch the tobacco, and the pastry was taken home through the prudent care of our interpreters.

' On this occasion I shall never forget the delightful prospect we had during these visits, from an eminence that commanded a view of the whole of this large and extensive town, which the Japanese affirm to be twenty-one leagues, or as many hours' walk, in circumference.' Vol. iii. p. 193.

With regard to the capital, he adds, that

' it is very populous, on account of the infinite number of strangers who flock to it from all parts of the country. Every family, it is true, has its own house, and the houses are only one, or at most two, stories high; but, yet, many individuals live crowded together in one and the same house. Towards the street there are always either work-shops, or ordinary sale-shops. These are for the most part covered with a cloth, hanging down before them, at least in part, so that no one can easily see from the street what the people are at work upon. But in the sale-shops are seen patterns of almost every thing. The streets, especially the principal ones, through which we passed, were very long and broad, frequently from eighty to a hundred feet in breadth.' Vol. iii. p. 205.

Among other particulars contained in the third volume, we meet with the following information. The principal island is in general mountainous; the shores are rocky, and the harbours shallow. The soil is thin, even in the valleys, consisting of clay and sand, with little mould; but, in many places, the fertility is considerable. The weather is very variable, the thermometer rising to 98°, and sinking to 35° of Fahrenheit. Tempests and hurricanes are common, and earthquakes are not infrequent. The people are of the middle size, and have a yellowish complexion, sometimes bordering on brown, and sometimes on white. Their eyes are small and sunken, their noses thick and short, and their heads large. They are far from being deficient in capacity; but, though literature is cultivated by many of them, they do not excel in the sciences. They are brave and resolute, but haughty and arrogant. They are sober, industrious, and upright; but mistrustful and unforgiving.

In the fourth volume, we find an ulterior account of Japanese institutions and customs. Their general religion is paganism. They have an obscure idea of one supreme deity; but the numerous inferior divinities are the usual objects of their worship, as they think the Almighty too exalted to require their homage. This is the opinion of the Sinto sect, the earliest in the country. From the coast of Coromandel, they have received the doctrine of Budô; and the moral system of Confucius has been since added. These are the leading sects; but subordinate ones are numerous.

The kubo is assisted in the government by six privy counsellors; and, under him, the provinces are respectively ruled by princes, whom he may dismiss or even punish capitally if they abuse their power. His court is splendid, as is also that of the dairi, who alone can confer titles of honour.

Rice is the chief food of the Japanese; but they also take a great variety of animal food. Their principal, if not their only, liquors are tea and rice-beer. Their marriages are attended with little pomp or ceremony: polygamy is not allowed; and fornication is very prevalent.

With the Japanese theatrical amusements, our grave author was not highly delighted.

Plays I had an opportunity of seeing acted several times. The spectators sit in houses of different dimensions upon benches; facing them, upon an elevated, but small and narrow place, stands the theatre itself, upon which seldom more than one or two actors perform at a time. These are always dressed in a very singular manner, according as their own taste and fancy suggest, inasmuch that a stranger would be apt to believe, that they exhibited themselves not to entertain but to frighten the audience.

Their gestures, as well as their dress, are strangely uncouth and extravagant, and consist in artificial contortions of the body, which it must have cost them much trouble to learn and perform. In general they represent some heroic exploit or love story of their idols and heroes which are frequently composed in verse, and are sometimes accompanied with music. A curtain may, it is true, be let fall between the actors and the spectators, and some necessary pieces be brought forward upon the theatre; but in other respects, these small theatres have no machinery nor decorations, which can entitle them to be put in comparison with those of Europe. I did not observe that public spectacles contributed any more in this country than in other places, to reform the manners of the people; as the design of them appears to be the same here as in other parts of the world, and as they tend rather to amuse the idle frivolity of mankind with jugglers' tricks, than to amend the heart, rather to fill the pockets of the actors, than to be of any real benefit to the spectators.' Vol. iv. p. 49.

Of the state of the sciences, arts, &c, among the Japanese, he says,

'Astronomy is in great favour and repute; notwithstanding which they are unable, without the assistance of the Chinese and Dutch almanacs, to compose a perfect calendar, or to compute to minutes and seconds an eclipse of the sun or moon. Medicine neither has attained, nor is it likely that it ever will attain to any degree of eminence. With anatomy they are totally unacquainted, and their knowledge of diseases is very imperfect, involved in error, and frequently in fable: botany and the knowledge of remedies, constitute the whole of their medical knowledge. Of natural philosophy and chemistry, the Japanese have little more idea than what they have lately learned from the physicians of Europe.' Vol. iv. p. 55.

'The art of printing is unquestionably very ancient in this country; but they always used, and still continue to use plates for this purpose, without having any knowledge of moveable types. They print upon one side of the paper only, on account of its thinness, as otherwise the ink would sink through. They have even a knowledge of engraving, although in the art of drawing they remain vastly inferior to the Europeans.' Vol. iv. p. 57.

'Poetry is a favourite study with this nation, who employ it to perpetuate the memory of their gods, heroes, and celebrated men. Music is likewise held in high estimation, but hitherto they have neither been able to bring their musical instruments to any degree of perfection, nor yet have they made any progress in the science of harmony. At festivals, and on other grand occasions, they make use of drums, fifes, stringed instruments, bells, horse-bells, and other musical instruments.' Vol. iv, p. 58,

' Arts and manufactures are carried on in every part of the country, and some of them are brought to such a degree of perfection, as even to surpass those of Europe: whilst some, on the other hand, fall short of European excellence. They work extremely well in iron and copper, and their silk and cotton manufactures equal, and sometimes even excel, the productions of other eastern countries. Their lacquering in wood, especially their ancient workmanship, surpasses every attempt which has been made in this department by other nations. They work likewise with great skill in fowas, which is a mixture of gold and copper, which they understand how to colour blue or black with their tousehe, or ink, by a method hitherto unknown to us.' Vol. iv. p. 59.

From Japan M. Thunberg returned to the island of Java, and landed in the beginning of 1777 at Batavia. Having examined various parts of Java, he proceeded to Ceylon. The growth and management of cinnamon are accurately described, as are also the precious stones of the island; but, for these particulars, and the account of the voyage from Ceylon to the Cape of Good Hope, thence to Holland and Great-Britain, and of the author's return to Sweden, we must refer our readers to the work itself. The volumes are certainly interesting; and the public may depend on the veracity of the traveller.

*A Treatise on Poverty, its Consequences, and the Remedy. By William Sabatier, Esq. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Stockdale. 1797.*

**POVERTY** is one of those evils which throw a frequent gloom over the brilliant advantages of civil society; and, for the eradication of it, much force of reasoning, and practical benevolence, have hitherto been employed in vain.

The natural inequality of mankind is an axiom which theoretic pertinacity alone will dispute; and one of the various consequences of this inequality is, that, in civilised communities, multitudes of men must be comparatively poor. It is, however, indispensably characteristic of a free and happy government, that employment should be provided for the active, that incapacity for labour should not induce a total privation of comfort, and that industry should not be suffered to toil merely for the purpose of allaying the cravings of hunger. It is much to be regretted that numerous legislative provisions, charity profusely liberal, and the multiplied departments of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, have not fully secured these desirable objects in our own country, but that so great a number of its inhabitants should endure the sharpest and most degrading evils of poverty.

To investigate the source of those evils, and to suggest the means of removing or palliating them, are the objects of this publication. The author is a man of observation and sagacity. He enumerates various causes by which persons are reduced to poverty, and thus mentions some of those which, in his opinion, 'prevent their rising above it.'

'The poor are too apt to fancy that their humble situations proceed from the oppression of the rich, and this idea is encouraged by artful and designing people, who are continually on the watch for some of those contingencies which never fail to present themselves in time of war, or after a very long peace. But were the poor to spend no more than is necessary to support them in corporal health, the wages which they get for their services, and the money they earn from their trades, are in general amply sufficient to effect this, and to lay by in a very few years what is necessary to put them into such a line as would lead to opulence: for when we recollect that one penny a day amounts to 1l. 10s. 5d. a year, we must be sensible there are very few incapable of sparing something from their earnings. It must, however, be confessed, that taking the present state of the poor into consideration, the resolution necessary for accumulating such a saving is very great, and it will never be accomplished except promoted by a previous tuition. To this end the tontine scheme was put in practice, and it is certainly the most laudable and effectual institution of the kind that ever was thought of;—it is one other addition to promote the ability of rising to pecuniary independence, for there are many people who having once acquired a trifle beforehand, would be induced to go on, that now designedly spend every thing they get possession of. Tontines, however, are yet in their infancy, and at present exist only in some great cities: a caution is therefore necessary, not to suffer one to fail from mismanagement or fraud; for, should that ever be the case, there will be a general stop from one end of the kingdom to the other. This irresolution to save, and not the want of sufficient wages, is a radical cause of a continuance in poverty; else whence is it, that, in London at least, so many of the labouring people can afford to be absent from their work on Monday? It is a saying, that "Saint Monday is the greatest vagabond in the kalendar." The usual wages of a porter and a common labourer are twelve shillings a week \*, and there are many who are, in a general way only, sober and industrious, that contrive to support a wife and two children decently and in health by their own wages, and by some trifle besides, which is earned by the former. A man, therefore, possessed of a trade, and who gets a guinea or twenty-five shillings a week, can blame himself only if he does not rise above dependence.

'Another cause is buying unprofitable food, and the misma-

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\* Since the commencement of the war, a porter's wages have risen to fourteen shillings a week.'

nagement of it afterwards;—tea, with bread and butter, is a very improper breakfast for any person who works hard. So are cheese and porter; the former of these has in it very little nourishment, and the latter is too costly.

‘ Every thing that will contribute to save only one penny a day in a poor family should be considered an object of importance; and a more easy means is not to be found, than baking a sort of bread which is as wholesome as any other, and yet cheaper. This is a very common practice in America; but experience has proved, that here, the gipsy under the hedge, or the beggars in the streets, would scorn it.

‘ Feeding pigs, cats, dogs, and birds, assist in keeping people poor: the first are intended for profit; but as the poor never calculate their expenses, so they never know the real worth of any thing. A pig, if it runs about, consumes time in looking for it; it frequently gets into the pound; it eats up the scraps of the family where there should be none; it occasions the boiling of victuals simply for the sake of the pot-liquor, and that is the mode of dressing food which retains in it the least nourishment of any other; then this stunted, half-starved creature must be fatted, and will, in the end, cost more than three times the value of the meat. As to the other animals, people never pretend to keep them for profit, what they consume is evidently a total loss.

‘ The habit which poor people are in of giving their children money to buy fruit and tarts, if frequent, becomes a bad practice; if now and then only, and for ripe fruit, it is of service to them: at any rate it assists to increase expenses, and should, therefore, be avoided, where industry and management are to be the steps to fortune. For there can be no doubt, that, in Great Britain at least, any one possessed of mental and bodily health, has the ability, by saving and perseverance, to arrive at a comfortable independence from the lowest indigence. Numberless are the instances which might be brought in proof. We have seen the eldest son of a peer, who possessed every advantage which a good education, a fine person, and elegant manners could give him, by a course of the utmost profligacy and extravagance, in want of bread to eat, and driven at length to the necessity of enlisting as a common soldier. And we have also known a man, whose origin was so low as to be an errand-boy, become governor of the bank of England, alderman, sheriff, lord mayor, and member of parliament for the city of London.’ P. 29.

Good sense appears in a great part of this quotation; but we differ from Mr. Sabatier in some points. In mentioning cheese, he makes no distinction between the volatile and acrid sort usually preferred by the higher classes, and that which is generally consumed by the poor: the latter is saponaceous, and possesses considerable nutritive properties, as it constitutes, with bread, the chief food of a great number of persons, daily occupied

in very laborious employments. With respect to porter, we are much surprised, and in some degree shocked, that a liquor which by its invigorating quality makes some compensation to the labouring poor for their scantiness of animal food, and which is so low in price comparatively with various kinds of beverage constantly used by the other classes of society, should, even by the strictest political economist, be thought *too costly*!

In considering the 'Consequences of Poverty,' the writer's view is naturally directed to the numerous crimes by which the laws and the peace of society are violated. The following remarks are pertinent and just.

'Those temptations to evil, which are too thickly sown throughout this kingdom, are causes of crimes. Unfortunately, some of them are intimately interwoven with the exigencies of the state, and others are become, from immemorial custom, and ancient tenure, the absolute property of individuals.—The exigencies of government are, in some measure, relieved by the sale of spirits, and lottery tickets; the evils of which are so numerous and obvious, and so much has been said, and written, in vain, that the bare mention of them in this place is sufficient. No one that has lived in the neighbourhood of a forest, but must have remarked the ill effects which an unfenced property has on the poorer sort of people. Their savage manners and debauched morals, are a proof of this assertion. It is wonderful, how much time they will lose in stealing the wood, in hunting up a half-starved hog, or cow, in the day; and in killing the game at night. Indeed, where there is much game, the crime of stealing and plundering any thing else, is from infancy rendered perfectly familiar. It is impossible that a child can be continually exercised in an unlawful act, and see his parents so employed, without becoming ever after indelibly addicted to the commission of whatever suits his immediate purpose. The same causes will produce the same effects in one country as in another; and, having long been accustomed, at intervals, to see the manners, and to hear the conversation of those settlers in America, who inhabit the foot of the Alleghany mountains, I have since been very much struck with the similarity of these, and the poorer class of inhabitants, in and about Epping Forest, although situated so near the metropolis. A human being, living in a savage state, has few wants; and, in the warmer regions, those wants are easily supplied;—on that account he possesses many virtues, which are unknown to him who is in a state half-way between the Indian and those who live in a perfectly civilized society; for, with all that is most disgusting in the former, the wants of the latter make him more selfish and vindictive.

'Smuggling, certainly a crime in itself, is also the mother of others. When a number of men get together, ready to commit an act that is contrary to the laws, and for which they are liable to

be punished, being in continual apprehension of detection, and resolute to defend the property, in which they are interested, they are apt to fortify their courage by strong liquors, and by herding together become rude and profligate in their manners; and addict themselves to drinking, gambling, cruelty, and swearing; until, by degrees, like pirates, their lives being in continual danger, they acquire nearly the same dispositions and brutish feelings. 'When a gang is broke up, those who are not seamen, from long disuse of orderly labour, become wreckers; or adopt some other mode of life, which is but little more criminal than the former, and end their lives by the common hangman.' P. 75:

Other causes of popular depravity are enumerated, and means of reform are suggested. Education, as connected with the views of the author, is copiously treated. Among many good hints on this important subject, he introduces some general principles from Helvetius, of whose philosophy a greater use has been made in the course of this treatise, than seems consistent with the strong repugnance professed by Mr. Sabatier to the doctrines of modern reformers. This gentleman affords an instance of the danger of keeping *loose company* on any occasion; for we discern, in several passages of his work where religion is mentioned, an inclination to consider it more as an engine of state, than as an incentive to the ardent belief and hope of men.

The system of criminal punishment in this country is reprobated by our author, as at once sanguinary and inefficacious. He cites Beccaria in support of his reasoning against the frequency of capital punishment; and, in the following note, he describes his own feelings at one of those horrid spectacles by which the metropolis is so often deformed.

'The only execution I ever saw was in the end of the year 1793, and that was accidental. As I was passing one morning, earlier than usual, from Snow-hill to Newgate-street, just as I got in the middle of that broad part, at the corner of St. Sepulchre's church yard, I accidentally turned my eyes towards Newgate prison. I say, accidentally, for there was nothing extraordinary, except the railings, to attract my attention. I then saw a thing, like a black bag, dangling from a beam; for I was so much taken up with my own thoughts, and being accustomed to the bustle of London, that I was not immediately sensible what it was. When, however, I did recollect myself, the sight shocked me very much, and I hastened away as fast as possible; but I could not help remarking, that there was no unusual number of persons standing about, except near the gallows, and there as many perhaps as if two boys had been fighting. After I had got under that part of the wall which joins the prison to Newgate-street, and consequently out of view of the hateful sight, I stopped to look about me:



Close to where I stood sat a woman selling fruit, and a man cleaning shoes; I asked what crime the man was hanged for, but neither could inform me. All round, and as far as I could see, there was no other appearance, except the railing, but what may always be seen at that time in the morning. I particularly remarked several people passing by as I had done, without any other attention than a transient look. I sincerely believe, had it not been for the temporary rails, I should not have seen the execution at all. I had often heard of this indifference, but never could comprehend how it was possible that the lower sort of people could be so unconcerned at each other's misfortunes. I, at that time, concluded it proceeded from the frequency of the sight; a proof, at any rate, that the criminal laws stand in need of reform \*.' P. 182.

Other circumstances of criminal punishment, equally offensive to humanity and decency, are thus noticed.

'Whether death is inflicted by hanging or decapitation, provided it is instantaneous, it is immaterial both to the criminal and to the public: it is so also to him, whether he is afterwards drawn and quartered, burnt, dissected, hung in chains, buried in the highway or church-yard, but not so to the nation. To exhibit a scaffold, like shambles, for human flesh, is abhorrent to our nature, and excites resentment rather than fear. To string human carcases, like moles or rats upon a stick, is very common upon the Thames and highways, and yet robberies are committed under, or within sight of them, almost every night; which proves the practice to be useless at least; and if so, it is very barbarous, and at any rate very disgusting.' P. 191.

We are informed by travellers of the filthy and shocking exhibitions of criminal justice among the Abyssinians, and are extremely sorry to recollect that similar traits of barbarity have polluted European countries. It is, however, proper to remark, that, from the refinement of the times, several of our author's objections are now groundless, though the gibbeting and dissecting of certain malefactors are still in use.

The following remark does more credit to the feelings than to the correctness of the author.

'It is wonderful that women alone are by our laws liable to be burnt alive; but as the practice in this particular amends the law, it is no further of consequence, except to show, that we can tram-

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\* Complaints of the frequency of capital punishment, and plans for eradicating the seeds of vice, are so often to be found in modern writers, that we think it is no more than a debt of justice to intimate that similar considerations have not escaped the attention of older English authors. It may be unnecessary to acquaint our readers that the Utopia of sir Thomas More contains many just and ingenious remarks on criminal punishments; but it is perhaps not generally known that the very learned ornament of British jurisprudence, lord Coke, in the Epilogue to his Institute of the Criminal Law, has treated the same subject with propriety; but we must refer the curious reader to the work in question, rather than quote the passage. R&v.

ple on the laws when it suits our purpose, and likewise to exhibit the spirit of some former times. The men, having the power, inflicted a partially cruel punishment on that sex, who rather merited their compassion. It was a degree of inhumanity which the wildest native Indian would have blushed at.' p. 191.

Mr. Sabatier should have recollected, what doubtless will occur to most of his readers, that this odious distinction in the punishment of females was abolished by an act of the legislature in the thirtieth year of the reign of his present majesty.

As the manners of a people are considerably influenced by their legal institutions, we shall conclude our extracts with the author's summary of instances in which, according to his opinion, 'our present laws tend to promote crimes.'

- 1st, By disproportioned punishments.
- 2d, By fixing the same punishment to two different crimes, the greater of which has a tendency to conceal the lesser.
- 3d, By admitting of impunity; as in an unconditional pardon, or an exchange from death to transportation, which is often, to a man rendered desperate by distress, an enviable situation.
- 4th, By confinement before trial in idleness and bad company; the former tending to hardened profligacy, the latter to an escape.
- 5th, The expense of prosecution.
- 6th, By allowing legal passages for escape.
- 7th, By proscribing a man's character by visible dismemberment, public whipping, pillory, or the stocks.
- 8th, By legalizing, or rather by not prohibiting pawnbrokers, and other receivers.
- 9th, By want of attention to the morals of the poor.
- 10th, By permitting profligate characters to fill the religious ministry.
- 11th, By non-residence, and neglect of incumbents.
- 12th, By not affording to a poor or distressed man the means of earning a living.
- 13th, By a false economy in detecting crimes.
- 14th, By permitting mendicity.
- 15th, By suffering seditionists to escape punishment.
- 16th, By allowing temptations to lie in the way of poor people, as game, and wood in forests.
- 17th, By suffering the escape of fraudulent, extravagant, and speculative bankrupts.
- 18th, The sale of spirituous liquors, and lottery tickets.
- 19th, By laying high duties on foreign commodities; and thereby encouraging smuggling.' p. 240.

More particular remarks on many of the points here enumerated, occur in various parts of the treatise. In considering the means 'of affording employment to the industrious,' Mr.

Sabatier introduces many judicious reflections on the laws which relate to the poor, and on the condition of the British seamen. We have been particular in our notice of the present work, from the importance of the subjects of which it treats: the author professes a disregard for the ornaments of style; if however he be not a foreigner, he is reprehensible for using in many passages a carelessness of language, rather productive of obscurity than of perspicuity.

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*Lectures in Divinity, by John Hey, D. D. (Concluded from p. 294.)*

AFTER our animadversions on various parts of this work, we enter upon the more pleasing task of pointing out some passages which will place the author in a more agreeable light. He read his lectures in the same college of which Woolston was formerly a fellow; and, by expressing his disapprobation of the treatment which that unfortunate man received from his contemporaries, he implanted (we hope) better notions of toleration in his hearers.

‘I am not ashamed to conclude with owning, that I feel more compassion, when I think of Woolston, than indignation; in his last works, he approached near to infidelity; but he always fancied he was refining the Christian system; his notions were a disorder in his intellects. He was a man of learning and probity; nay, of wit and humour, however misapplied. It would have reflected more honour upon our religion, and upon our civil government, to have committed him to the care of his relations and friends (for friends he had to the last, of the greatest eminence in the church), than to let him support himself in prison by the sale of his writings, and end his days in confinement.’ Vol. i. p. 195.

Those persons only who have indulged in the solitary contemplation of religion, will fully comprehend the excellence of the following passage.

‘In a solitary, religious, contemplative life, there are not only punishments for intemperance, but also rewards for abstemiousness. So that every degree of abstemiousness seems to answer to a man in such a life, and to be productive of good. The body, though not robust, becomes free from disorders, supple, light, and unencumbered; not strong, but easily set in motion, and disposed to agility: and robust and strong enough for all purposes of a contemplative life. The mind is also active, and light; the sentiments become refined, polished, benevolent: the intellects penetrating, so that the investigation of truth becomes successful and pleasing—And a consciousness of not being refractory, but resigned to the situation of affairs, gives a serenity, and a mild complacency, which makes every thing wear a pleasing aspect.—This consciousness grows stronger, as the contemplative man gets a stronger sense of the sinful-

ness of the world, and of the merit of retiring from it. All this must greatly promote abstemiousness, in a life of solitary contemplation.

‘Abstemiousness, when become habitual, promotes in return religious solitary contemplation. This may already in some measure appear; but it may not be superfluous to observe, that he who has, for a number of years, abstained from rich food, grows so feeble and delicate, that he cannot bear the shocks and rudenesses arising in intercourse with worldly men: coarse mirth, unfeeling selfishness, bold ostentation, act upon him with such a repulsive force, that it requires the utmost efforts of his courage and resolution to continue any time in ordinary society: he retires; he then finds himself at home; sheltered, protected: his fine tastes, his elegant conceptions, his mild and sweet affections, out of the reach of contempt and ridicule, spring forth, bloom, and flourish. And, when he has long continued in this way, he gets to think common life very faulty and imperfect, and attaches himself unalterably to a contemplative life, as to that, in which alone the lower part of man is duly degraded, and the higher faculties worthily honoured and respected.’ Vol. i. p. 356.

The writer’s candour appears where he treats of heresy.

‘An insight into the nature of heresy would make us candid to those writers, who differed from us; we should acknowledge, that no other cause of heresy need be assigned, than a desire of resolving difficulties, which have perplexed the generality of those, who have considered them: at least, no other than this, helped forward with a little vanity, and partiality for one’s own inventions.

‘And reflexion on our present subject would make us, as we were reading any ancient Christian author, constantly distinguish between an error professed, and one charged by adversaries upon those who did not profess it.—Nay, such reflexion would suggest apologies for the very authors, whose accounts we thought ourselves obliged to set aside: when we compared times, places, customs, traditions, and saw the imperfect records they had to judge from, and how natural it was for them, in their trying situations, to be agitated with zeal; we should feel an apprehension, that we, under the same disadvantages, might have run into more faulty excesses than they did.’ Vol. i. p. 387.

Our author’s sentiments on ridicule we strongly recommend; and we cordially unite with him in his notice of Foote and the School for Scandal.

‘We must not quite pass over Mr. Foote: he has a festivity, which is very enlivening, and he knew prevailing manners so well, as to ridicule them very happily; but he was too ignorant of religion to ridicule even its abuses with propriety.—When he ridicules abuses of the scriptural doctrines concerning the influence of the Holy Spirit, the shock, which he gives, is too strong. He seems not only to want theological knowledge, but knowledge of the hu-

man mind; or attention in entering into the feelings of rational Christians. Still, I would not fly from his ridicule, I would examine it gravely, in order to form an useful judgment from it; as a medical person would examine some things disgusting in their nature.—I can conceive the very abuses, which he ridicules, to be ridiculed, by Addison, or others, in such a manner as not to hurt my feelings. Eachard's account of parson Slipstocking, relates to the influence of the Holy Spirit, as well as Foote's ridicule, but it does not give me a very painful shock \*.' Vol. i. p. 452.

The benefits of ridicule are well stated; and the graver clergy cannot be offended at the hints from so grave a divine.

'Some of the clergy, who live retired, are apt, I fear, to become too serious; the moderate use of delicate and respectful ridicule might, in some cases, take off that seeming moroseness, that apparent rancour, with which they are sometimes apt to speak of the faults of their neighbours; meaning only honest indignation; and perhaps be a means, in other instances, of preventing the contrary extreme; for he, who prevents one extreme, often prevents another: Socrates must have been very pleasing in private life, and his wit must have had a great tendency to check such excesses as these.—I should be curious to know, whether Sterne thought of Socrates, in drawing Yorick, or Fielding in drawing Dr. Harrison? Some of the greatest men I have ever heard converse, have excelled in delicate and well-bred ridicule.' Vol. i. p. 454.

'In settling the uses of ridicule, we should determine, that it might be the means of shewing to ourselves and our friends those faults which most impeded our advancement in useful knowledge, virtue, and religion. It might hinder us from being pedantic, self-satisfied, proud, hypocritical, or from running into fanaticism, or superstition. And, if it were cultivated by men of abilities and talents; of polished minds, and amiable dispositions; it might, when mixed with worthy and pious sentiments, give such a grace and beauty to virtue and religion, as would make them universally loved and desired.' Vol. i. p. 458.

The professors of the law, as well as the divines, may profit by Dr. Hey's distinctions between the provinces of a judge and an advocate; and his rules for controversy are judicious. We will extract a part of what he says with regard to the qualifications and duties of a judge.

'He should be capable of making the nicest distinctions, as very few ingenious arguments can be solved without them.—As he

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\* Mr. Sheridan's Joseph Surface, in the School for Scandal, is, in my judgment, a most useful piece of humour; sentiments are expressed as ridiculous, which really every honest man feels.—I think this the case; but the play has not been published, and I have only seen it once, and that in the year 1777: ridicule is, in this play, very useful in exposing censoriousness pretending to candour.

has to judge from the whole of what he hears, a strong and nice retention must be requisite, and a power of throwing out superfluous matter, and setting the forcible parts in direct opposition to each other. Nor is it any trifling talent to make that, which has been urged in pompous and inflated language, easy and familiar, clear and popular.

‘It may be doubted how far ornament and refined wit, Attic salt, should be reckoned a quality of a judge:—if all people loved truth heartily, and were capable of understanding and relishing nice distinctions, it would not be necessary: but a love of truth does not sufficiently animate the generality; and nice distinctions often give disgust, by wearing an appearance of sophistry and evasion: therefore, it were rather upon the whole desirable, that the judge should have something lively and entertaining in his manner. His wit, or fancy, should be of a lofty, polished, refined nature, never condescending to meanness or vulgar buffoonery. It should be a wit seeming to disdain wit.’ Vol. i. p. 405.

Our limits prevent us from going through the extensive range of subjects comprehended in the work before us. Each article affords matter for much discussion; and the mode in which all are treated may be very advantageous to a future lecturer. He may well employ himself in settling the difficulties which the reading of these volumes must excite in the mind of every student, in placing each object in a clearer point of view, and in extricating it from the maze of doubt in which it is involved; and perhaps, on this account, no work produced by the first lecturer could better answer the purposes of the founder of the lecture. Here is food for lecturing for a century; and not only the university, but also the dissenting academies, may profit by this publication. They will here find a great number of important propositions in theology; and, from the hints given to them, as well as from references to various authors, they may be able to form a consistent theory for themselves.

In one respect, however, this production may be considered as detrimental to the interests of the church. The morality of subscribing, in the writer’s lax mode of treating the subject, is very suspicious; and it appears to be his aim to make the articles as palatable as possible to the present times. Hence it is to be apprehended, that the young students will become daily less attached to the appropriate doctrines of the church, and will think themselves at liberty to change at their discretion the meaning of its articles; and, instead of uniformity of opinion, the obvious scope of the framers of these articles, each parish will modify them by the caprice of its minister. The distinction also which is made between philosophers or priests, and common men, will, when it is generally known,

produce an effect similar to that which took place in the ancient world on the well-known esoteric and exoteric doctrines. Suspicion will attend every preacher; and, if he should advance a doctrine which may not suit the generality of his hearers, disputes will arise among them, whether he believes what he says, or merely considers it as proper for their belief.

Upon the whole, we are of opinion, that, though the students of the university of Cambridge may be benefited by the work, yet to candidates for the ministerial office in other situations, and to many who wish to entertain just notions of the doctrines of the church, it may prove a dangerous publication.

*Musæi Oxoniensis Litterarii Conspectus et Specimina.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Elmsley.

*Musæi Oxoniensis Litterarii Specimina.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Elmsley.

*Two Numbers of the Oxford Literary Museum, containing critical Observations on the Works of the Ancients, various Readings, &c.*

THE editor of this work is Mr. Burgess, whose name is well known to the learned throughout Europe. His qualifications for a work of this nature are indisputable; and his extensive connexions with critics and philologists will aid him with ample contributions.

In the first number, we find remarks on various passages of Hippocrates, by M. Coray, a physician at Paris. Some of the proposed alterations are truly emendatory, while others are less strongly supported. We afterwards observe notes upon Aristotle's Poetics, left in manuscript by Casaubon, Jortin, and other scholars; but they are neither numerous nor important.

The new readings of Quintus Curtius, drawn from two manuscripts, are in many parts very different from the old; and occasional additions are made. The Commentaries of Proclus upon Euclid are considerably altered from a Leyden manuscript; and, from another copy, a new edition of that work may receive an important augmentation. The next article is a letter (before unpublished) from John Tzetzes to Epiphanius, involving classical and historical references.

The second number contains some curious and some trifling articles. M. Coray continues his labours upon Hippocrates; but all his conjectures are not conclusive. The dean of Rochester having furnished the editor with the observations of

Mr. Chilcot on the tenses of verbs, they are here inserted. The writer is of opinion, that Dr. Clarke was indebted for his ideas of the tenses (explained in a note on the 37th line of the Iliad) to the celebrated Roman grammarian Varro; but, if the literary abilities of our countryman had been less distinguished than they were, he might have drawn those conclusions from his own researches, without the smallest hint from any preceding author. The next article (communicated by the bishop of Rochester) consists of Raper's account of the successive editions of Aristophanes. Lord Monboddo's remarks upon some passages of Herodotus follow. He endeavours to demonstrate the accuracy of that historian in his statement of the dimensions of the largest of the Egyptian pyramids; and his attempt is so satisfactory to *himself*, that he adds, 'I am very glad to be able to vindicate from the charge of perplexity and obscurity so favourite an author of mine, who, I think, is the most delightful and the most instructive historian that ever wrote.'

The observations of the poet Gray on the Io of Plato, were copied from a volume of manuscript remarks, in which, the editor thinks, genius, learning, and judgment, are signally displayed.

'Excerptæ sunt' (he says in his prefatory address to Mr. Tyrwhitt) 'e spisso volumine Grayii observationum ineditarum in universa Platonis opera, in Strabonem, et geographos antiquos, in vetustissimos poetas Anglicos, in ecclesias cathedrales Angliæ, &c. scriptarum magna eruditione, summa diligentia, raro ingenio, et judicio acti, ita ut poeta ille cultissimus in vatum eruditorum numero, una cum Miltone, merito censeri queat.' P. ii.

Some of Mr. Gray's notes are trivial; but the conclusion merits transcription.

'As Serranus, and (I think) every one else after him, have read this dialogue with a grave countenance, and understood it in a literal sense, though it is throughout a very apparent and continued irony, it is no wonder if such as trust to their accounts of it find it a very silly, frivolous thing. Yet under that irony, there doubtless lies concealed a serious meaning, which makes a part of Plato's great design—a design that runs through all his writings. He was persuaded, that virtue must be built on knowledge, not on that counterfeit knowledge which dwells only on the surface of things, and is guided by the imagination rather than the judgment (for this was the peculiar foible of his countrymen, a light and desultory people, easily seduced by their fancy, wherever it led them), but on that which is fixed and settled on certain great and general truths, principles as ancient, and as unshaken, as nature itself, or rather as the author of nature. To this knowledge, and conse-



418. *Transactions of the Society of Arts and Manufactures.*

quently to virtue, he thought philosophy was our only guide: and all those arts that are usually made merely subservient to the passions of mankind, as politicks, eloquence, poetry, &c. he thought were not otherwise to be esteemed than as they are grounded on philosophy, and directed to the ends of virtue. Those who had best succeeded in them before his time, owed their success (he thought) rather to a lucky hit, to some gleam of truth, as it were, providentially breaking in upon their minds, than to those fixed unerring principles, which are not to be erased from a soul, that has once been thoroughly convinced of them. Their conduct therefore, in their actions, and in their productions, has been wavering between good and evil, and unable to reach perfection. The inferior tribe have caught something of their fire merely by imitation, and form their judgments not from any real skill they have in these arts, but merely from what La Bruyere calls un gout de comparaison. The general applause of mankind has pointed out to them what is finest; and to that, as to a principle, they refer their taste, without knowing or enquiring in what its excellence consists. Each muse (says Plato in this dialogue) inspires, and holds suspended her favourite poet in immediate contact, as the magnet does a link of iron, and from him (through whom the attractive virtue passes, and is continued to the rest) hangs a long chain of actors, singers, critics, and interpreters of interpreters.' p. 46.

Mr. Granville Sharp has investigated, with some minuteness, the uses of the Greek article *q* and the copulative *and* in the New Testament; and some supplementary remarks, explanatory of different texts, are intended for the next number.

Annotations upon Horace by Faber and bishop Pearce, with a multiplicity of various readings of the Poetics of Aristotle, conclude the number.

*Transactions of the Society instituted at London, for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; with the Premiums offered in the Year 1797. Vol. XV. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Robson. 1797.*

WE have already stated the general plan and views of this useful institution; and, in the present volume \*, we meet with no material deviations. An anxiety for the extension of various kinds of knowledge, and an attention to points of practical utility, are still evinced by the directors of the society. Some new objects of reward are proposed. Under the head

\* See the XIXth volume of our new arrangement, p. 414, for an account of the 14th volume of this work.

of agriculture, we find a *premium* offered for 'harvesting corn in wet weather.' - The reasons which have induced the society to bring forward this object, are these.

'It is many years since the society first offered a premium for discovering a method of making hay in wet weather; and however difficult the accomplishing that end may appear, yet the inestimable advantages the public would receive, if a good means of doing it could be discovered, and the pleasing reflexion, that many things, formerly thought impracticable, have of late years, from the improvements in mechanical and chemical knowledge, been reduced to practice, has [*have*] induced the society to offer a reward for harvesting corn in unpropitious seasons, an object peculiarly interesting to mankind in general, and more particularly so to this kingdom. Let us therefore hope, that, by the perseverance of the society, and the ingenuity of the public, some methods may be found to alleviate those inconveniences which this country, from its insular situation, is so peculiarly subjected to.' P. v.

On a former occasion, it was satisfactorily shown that opium, of the best quality, was capable of being produced and prepared in this climate; and now it only remains to be proved, whether it can be obtained in such quantity, and at such prices, as may render it an article of trade.

'To ascertain this fact, the society have, in this volume, first offered premiums for preparing opium in large quantities, in England. When the great importance of this drug in medicine, and the abominable adulterations it is liable to, are considered, it will appear to every judicious observer, that a more proper object of the attention and encouragement of the society can hardly be found.' P. vi.

The frequency of accidents to passengers in carriages, from the sudden fright of horses, and the dreadful consequences of explosions to persons employed in the manufacture of gunpowder, have induced the society to offer considerable rewards for the discovery of such means as may prevent those inconveniences and disasters in future.

We are pleased to observe that, under the class of 'Colonies and Trade,' the *præmia* of which were formerly confined to the West-Indian islands, there is now an extension to the East-Indies. This alteration originated in the following circumstance.

'Information having been received that a particular species of cotton was produced in some of the British settlements in Indostan, which might be of use in the manufactures of this kingdom, an honorary premium has been this session offered for importing a quantity of such cotton, that a fair trial may be made of it. The same also may be said of annatto and cochineal, both which

used to be imported at a considerable annual expence from foreign countries, but which, from accounts lately received, there seems great reason to believe, may, under proper encouragement, be produced in some of those parts of the East-Indies that are under the dominion of the British government.' p. viii.

Referring to what has been already accomplished, we find that, in the business of planting on barren and waste lands, much has been done by Mr. Curwen. Two hundred acres of ground of this description have been inclosed and planted with acorns.

The improvement of waste land is of great moment in different points of view: but, in Mr. Todd's mode of proceeding, we see nothing particularly excellent. He merited, however, the reward assigned to him; and some of the remarks contained in his paper deserve attention.

'The utility of improving barren grounds has not only been found to fill the pockets of the owners, but at the same time to contribute much to the happiness of the labourer, both with regard to constant employ, and as a sure means to reduce the article of bread; so that a more general attention to this system would silence the complaints of the poor about the dearth of provisions, and the murmurs of the farmers against heavy rates. Therefore it is my humble opinion that the labouring people could not be better employed, to universal advantage, than in the improvement and cultivation of barren land,' p. 198.

The mole plough, invented by Mr. Scott for the purpose of subterranean draining, will, we think, be found useful: but it cannot be generally employed; and one great objection to it arises from the strong team which it requires.

For the cultivation of rhubarb, Messrs. Stillingfleet and Jones have been respectively rewarded. The mode adopted by the latter is not very different from that which is pursued by the former; but, for the account of each, we refer to the volume.

We find one claimant of a recompense for the making of starch from materials not employed as food for man. Mrs. Gibbs has discovered a mode of preparing starch from the roots of a plant found in the common fields, the *arum maculatum*; but the high price of the root will probably prevent it from becoming an article of commerce.

Under the head of the Polite Arts, we observe an ingenious method of transferring paintings from one substance to another, for which we are indebted to Mr. Salmon.

In the papers relative to mechanics, we have descriptions of several inventions. Mr. Peck's packing-press, Mr. Ridley's improvement of the foot-lathe, and the machine of Mr. Davis for loading and unloading, promise to be very useful.

After this account of the volume, we have only to recommend to the society a careful investigation of the grounds on which claims of reward may be made. On a strict attention to this point, much of the utility of the institution depends.

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*The New Universal Gazetteer; or, Geographical Dictionary: containing a Description of all the Empires, Kingdoms, States, Provinces, Cities, Towns, Forts, Seas, Harbours, Rivers, Lakes, Mountains, and Capes, in the known World; with the Government, Customs, Manners, and Religion of the Inhabitants; the Extent, Boundaries, and Natural Productions of each Country; the Trade, Manufactures, and Curiosities of the Cities and Towns, collected from the best Authors; their Longitude, Latitude, Bearings, and Distances, ascertained by actual Measurement, on the most authentic Charts. With Twenty-Six whole Sheet Maps. By the Rev. Clement Cruttwell. 3 Vols. 8vo. 2l. 2s. Boards. Robinsons. 1798.*

WE have long wished to see an accurate and very comprehensive gazetteer; and it is a circumstance reproachful to the industry of the times, that we should have been hitherto left to the mercy of careless compilers. The present gazetteer will remove the chief grounds of complaint, as it embraces a vast field, and appears to have been executed with great labour and care. It is justly observed in the preface, that 'A gazetteer that is merely an abridgment, will, at one time or other, be of little use; for who can predict what shall be the most important spots of the earth, to which public attention may be directed? Experience, arising from the present war, convinces us, that places of apparent insignificance have grown into celebrity; while their name, situation, and connection with other places, were before almost unknown, or greatly subject to misrepresentation.'

When Mr. Cruttwell published his gazetteers of France and of the Netherlands\*, he gave some proof of his qualifications for the task of geographical compilation; and, in the execution of the work before us, he has gratified every reasonable expectation, and has not over-rated his merit when he says that, 'in every article, truth, accuracy, and impartiality, have been considered as fundamental principles, and invariably pursued.' His plan was to include every part of the known world that is capable of designation or description, pointing out its situation, particular character, form of government, commerce,

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. VIII. p. 82; and Vol. XI. p. 329.

and productions, and the peculiar customs and manners of the inhabitants; and the authorities consulted were numerous and of the best repute.

It cannot be expected that we should have formed our judgment of a work of this nature, from an examination of the whole. Where, however, we have bestowed that care, we have uniformly found the author correct not only in his history, but in the relative situations, distances, and measurements. We shall select the description of the Bermudas, and a part of the account of France, as specimens of the execution.

*Bermudas Islands*, or Somers Islands, a cluster of small islands, situated on the Atlantic ocean. They received their former name from John Bermudas, a Spaniard, who discovered them in the year 1503; the other name they take from sir George Somers, an Englishman, who was wrecked on them in the year 1609. They were granted by the Spanish king, Philip II, to Don Ferdinand de Camelo, who however never took possession. An English ship was forced on them by stress of weather in the year 1593. Sir John Somers, and his brothers, formed the first settlement soon after his shipwreck. They are in number 400 or more, but for the most part so small and so barren, that they have neither inhabitants nor name. Hardly one eighth part is inhabited. The most considerable of these islands are St. George, St. David, Cooper, Ireland, Somerset, Long Island, Bird Island, and Nonesuch. The first has a town, the two following some villages, the others only farms dispersed. The air is so healthy, that sick people from the continent of America frequently go thither for the recovery of their health. The winter is hardly perceptible, it may be said to be perpetually spring, the trees never lose their verdure, and the leaves only fall when new ones begin to appear, birds sing and breed without intermission; but these advantages are counterbalanced by frightful storms, accompanied by formidable thunders, which are announced by a circle round the moon. Some fertile plains are seen, but in general the country is mountainous. The soil is of divers colours, brown, white, and red, of which the former is the best; although light and stony, it is in general rich and fertile; the water is in general salt, having but little fresh, except rain water preserved in cisterns. The inhabitants gather two harvests of Indian corn in a year, one in July, the other in December: this forms the principal food of the inhabitants. They likewise cultivate tobacco, legumes, and fruit sufficient for their wants. Their trees are principally the cedar and palmetto, the former is much esteemed for its fragrance, its durability, and beauty, and for the facility with which it is wrought. Of this wood they build their ships, and often their houses and churches. The palmetto, a species of wild palm, is not less common, nor less useful; the fruit resembles a plum in its colour, form, and size; the wood serves for building, and the leaves, which are of an amazing length, are used to cover houses.

Besides these, they have orange trees, olive, laurels, pear trees, &c. The red wood is peculiar to these islands, its coloured fruit feeds worms, which change to flies, a little larger than cochineal, instead of which they are used. Another plant peculiar to them is a kind of creeping dandel, whose root is most powerfully emetic. Here are a great variety of birds, both of land and water; fish likewise abound upon the coast. Among the insects the spider is remarkable for its large size, but its beautiful colours diminish the disgust it inspires; its web is in colour and substance a perfect raw silk, and running from tree to tree, small birds are sometimes so entangled as hardly to be able to escape. There are no venomous reptiles in the island. In the year 1765, a society of the principal inhabitants engaged to form a library of all books of economics in every language; to employ all healthy persons of both sexes, according to their talents and their character, and to reward those who strike out any new art, or improve one already known; to provide for the honest workman, who is become old or past labour; and to indemnify any individual who should, from any circumstance, be oppressed. Building of ships and sloops is the principal trade of the inhabitants. These islands extend from north-east to south-west about fifteen leagues: the whole shore is surrounded with rocks, most of which are dry at low water, but covered at flood: 240 leagues SE. from Cape Fear in Virginia, and 280 E. from the continent of South Carolina. The north point of these islands lies long. 63. 28. W. Greenwich. Lat. 32. 34. N.

‘ *France*, a country of Europe, bounded on the north by the English channel and the Netherlands, on the east by Germany, Switzerland, and Italy; on the south by the Mediterranean sea and Spain; and on the west by the Atlantic; about 200 leagues long, and 188 wide. At the decline of the Roman power, this country, then called Gaul, was invaded by the Franks, a people who inhabited the borders of the Rhine, and entirely subdued by them, under the conduct of their leader, or king, Clovis. These Franks were tall of stature, their hair light, and eyes blue; adroit, active, and courageous, they rushed forwards on their enemies, swift as an arrow; they put to death for the most part those whom they conquered; the spoils of the vanquished were their harvest; they dwelt in forests and in marshes, where their women resided; their cabins were of wood, constructed without art, and formed into scattered villages, without order. These savages, united together under the command of a prince, went with him to war, without being under his subjection in time of peace; their princes were rather the chiefs of their soldiers than kings of the people; they paid him no tribute, they divided the spoils, and they made him presents. Such were the conquerors of Gaul; such were the founders of the French monarchy. This nation afterwards became Christians, at least in name, if such can be called so, who submit to ceremonies of which they neither knew the design nor end; however, they insensibly lost their ancient manners. Their

democracy was effaced, and a military aristocracy succeeded. Their kings were always taken from the same family, which was that of Clovis. It produced but few great men. Theodebert is perhaps the only one who truly deserved the name. The generals were elected by the grandees, and these generals, under the name of mayors, became insensibly the chiefs of the state; made their kings to be forgotten; governed instead of them, and sat in their place. They could indeed perform nothing without the general assembly of the nation, which restrained their power. These assemblies were composed of the clergy and the nobility, whose consent was necessary both for war and peace, and the ordinances of the prince, or rather of the mayor, could only be ratified or made into laws by them. But the mayors, by their great virtues, or by the splendour of their actions, generally influenced their decisions. This office in time became hereditary; Pepin Heristel governed all France for twenty-seven years; his widow and his grandson governed after him. This grandson was Charles Martel, a man worthy the power which he claimed, and who deserved to give kings to France, since he was the governor and defender, defeating the Mahometans, who meant to invade France, as they had already invaded Spain. He might have taken the title of king, he was contented with that of duke. Pepin, his son, proposed to the pope to decide which ought to bear the name of king; a prince without capacity, or a minister who governed with glory. The pope had need of Pepin; he decided that the minister ought to be king, and Pepin usurped the crown.'

After some other historical remarks, the compiler adds,

'The kingly government of France had continued from Clovis, who established himself at Soissons, in the year 486. Others call Pharamond the first king of France, who began to reign in the year 420. Hugh Capet obtained the crown of France in the year 987, and in the year 1793, on the 21st of January, Louis XVI, one of his descendants, was executed on a public scaffold at Paris, and with him ended the monarchy of France. His son, a minor, remained in prison to his death, which happened in the month of June, 1795. Thus France, after continuing a monarchy upwards of twelve hundred years, has been by the national assembly declared a republic; with the fall of monarchy, or indeed before, all titles of nobility were abolished; and all ecclesiastical domains, such as abbeys, monasteries, convents, &c. were decreed national property; all tithes were abolished; the revenues of the higher orders of the clergy reduced, and the number lessened; annuities were granted to the professed; and to the parochial clergy a provision was granted, moderate, but perhaps superior to what they had before received as vicars. The ancient division into provinces, or governments, was also, by a solemn decree of the nation, changed into that of eighty-three departments, of which the island of Corsica made one.'

The following extract contains a descriptive sketch of the country.

There is no country of Europe more beautiful or more agreeable to live in than France; the air in general is pure and wholesome, and the change of seasons is less inconvenient than in almost any other. It is not subject to such severe cold as Germany, nor to the violent heat of Italy and Spain. In the southern parts the winters are indeed sharp, but of short duration. The seasons are more regular than in England. The soil, diversified by mountains and plains, is watered by a great number of large and small rivers, which serve at once to fertilize the country and convey merchandize from one extremity of the nation to the other. The industry of the inhabitants, joined to its natural advantages, renders it one of the most fertile countries in Europe. It abounds in corn, legumes, fruit, wines, oil, pasture, hemp, and flax, sufficient for its own inhabitants, and much to spare. Here are mines of iron, lead, and copper, there are likewise some of silver and gold, but the last are not rich enough to defray the expences of working. The chief productions of France, for exportation, are wines, as Champagne, Burgundy, claret, &c. brandy, vinegar, fruit, such as prunes and prunelloes, dried grapes, pears, apples, oranges, and olives; corn, salt, hemp, flax, silk, resin, oil, soap, cork, kidskins, perfumes, drugs, &c. The manufactures are silks, such as lustrings, modes, brocades, velvets, &c. woollen cloth, linen, coarse and fine, lace, paper, China, of exquisite beauty and fineness, soap, &c. The French have for some years past obtained the secret from Spain of making Castile soap, as it is called, and have very large manufactures both at *Marseilles* and *Toulon*, and have thereby deprived the Spaniards of that valuable branch of trade. Nor is this the only benefit the French receive by this manufacture; for as one of the chief ingredients of making this soap is *Levantine olive-oil*, their large sale for their soap gives them the advantage of constant back-freights from the Levant with these oils; which, it seems, has proved one means of the French advancing their Turkey trade upon the ruin of the English. As France is certainly the most populous and extensive country of Europe, so its inland traffic is proportionate, and in many particulars far beyond any country in Europe; being carried on with great ease and little expence, by means of many large navigable rivers and canals. The arts and sciences have always been encouraged in France. The art of engraving has obtained great excellence, architecture, civil and military, has attained a high degree of perfection, and the construction of their ships has not been out-done even by the English themselves. The principal rivers are the *Seine*, the *Loire*, the *Garonne*, and *Rhone*. France is said to contain 400 cities or walled towns, 43,000 small towns or villages, and 25,000,000 of inhabitants. Paris is the capital.

Amidst such a multiplicity of articles as the work contains, it is more than possible that some inaccuracies may be found; but these may be pardoned on account of the general correctness, which far exceeds that of any similar publication.

The maps which accompany this very useful gazetteer are  
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twenty-six in number, viz. the world—chart of the world on Mercator's projection—countries round the north pole—Europe—Russia—Sweden, Denmark, and Norway—Scotland—England and Wales—Ireland—France divided into provinces—also into departments—Batavia—Belgium—Germany—Spain and Portugal—Poland—Italy—Turkey—Africa—Asia—China—Hindustan—West Indies—British America—United States of America—and South America. These maps have been executed at a very considerable expense; and, when compared with the common maps, they will be found to have received the requisite alterations and corrections arising from recent discoveries.

*An Essay on the Picturesque, as compared with the Sublime and the Beautiful; and on the Use of studying Pictures, for the Purpose of improving real Landscape. By Uvedale Price, Esq. A new Edition, with considerable Additions. Vol. I. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Robson. 1797.*

WE have already \* stated the points in dispute between Messrs. Knight and Price on the one side, and Messrs. Brown and Repton on the other; and we now re-enter upon the subject, in a survey of Mr. Price's essay.

He begins with recommending the study of pictures for the improvement of our landscapes. Intricacy and variety are, in his opinion, characteristics of the picturesque; and this foundation of its character is supported by an examination of the practice of the best painters. We think, however, that he has pursued his system too far. The tattered blanket round the squalid gypsy, the high irregular bank varied with the twisted roots of the old oak, are picturesque: but would we choose either as an object in our ornamented grounds? The irregular border of the naturally sloped grass, the tussocks of rushes, the rude mounds, are picturesque; but we, by general consent, avoid them. It does not follow, however, that we desert the principle: we only forbear to apply it too rigidly. When we have surveyed nature in her wild profusion, the eye and the mind seek for repose in calmer and more polished scenes. Human nature pursues the same plan in every region. Each smooths the spot immediately within his view, and corrects its rude irregularities.

Mr. Price, with a well-informed mind and some degree of taste, is able to correct the faults of his opponents, who have certainly carried their polishing system too far, and, by an uniformity of ornament, have given a single character to every scene which they have endeavoured to improve; but, on the other hand, he has extended his principle to such a length,

\* See Crit. Rev. New Art. Vol. XVII. p. 14.

that the rough field and the high-banked lane must become the ornaments of our pleasure-grounds. The mind revolts at the idea; and, having thus reduced the new system to an absurdity, we must look for the error in the application of the principles. This consists in a too rigid adoption of the term *picturesque*. We would confine it to the principles of the landscape-painter in the arrangement of his objects, the judicious selection of those which ought to be more prominent than the rest, the harmony of grouping and colouring, and the breadth of light and shade.

The observations of Mr. Price on picturesque objects are in general judicious. We doubt only whether such objects can always be proper in ornamented grounds, where, as we observed, the mind requires repose, though not perfect vacuity. Beauty and picturesqueness are well discriminated; the one soft, flowing, and easy; the other, wild, irregular, and starting into an uncommon outline or a peculiar angle. Beauty, however, should predominate nearer home; picturesqueness, in the woods, in the arched and irregular cavern, in the abrupt turn of the rivulet, in the lane caught, and alternately lost, in its sinuous course. But to follow the picturesque, requires attention and exertion: at home we would repose, and aim only at so much variety as would relieve insipidity. We come nearer to our author's sentiments in the following passage; yet he generally requires too much of the poignant. As we have referred to the consent of mankind in general, he will allow us to refer to it in this particular instance. He will recollect that the poignancy of female beauty and manner has always been supposed more suitable to the mistress than to the wife.

‘ If the principles of the beautiful, according to Mr. Burke, and those of the picturesque, according to my ideas, are just, it seldom happens that they are perfectly unmixed; and, I believe, it is for want of observing how nature has blended them, and from attempting to make objects beautiful, by dint of smoothness and flowing lines, that so much insipidity has arisen.

‘ The most enchanting object the eye of man can behold—that which immediately presents itself to his imagination when beauty is mentioned—that, in comparison of which all other beauty appears tasteless and uninteresting—is the face of a beautiful woman; but even there, where nature has fixed the throne of beauty, the very seat of its empire, she has guarded it, in her most perfect models, from its two dangerous foes—insipidity and monotony. The Greeks (who cannot be accused of having neglected the study of beauty, or, like Dutch painters, of having servilely copied whatever was before them) judged that a line nearly strait of the nose and forehead, was necessary to give a zest to all the other flowing

lines of the face; then the eye-brows, and the eye-lashes, by their projecting shade over the transparent surface of the eye, and above all the hair, by its comparative roughness, and its partial concealments, accompany and relieve the softness, clearness, and smoothness of all the rest. Where the hair has no natural roughness, it is often artificially curled and crisped\*, and it cannot be supposed that both sexes have been so often mistaken in what would best become them.' P. 125.

The remarks on the broad lights and shadows, on the bad effects of glaring white objects, and on what may be styled the picturesque in colour, are pertinent and just. These are very applicable to the management of grounds; and from this part we shall select a specimen.

\* I have now mentioned what seem to me the principal beauties and defects of the earlier part of spring, at which time, however, the change is most striking: for as the season advances, and the leaves are more and more expanded, they no longer retain their vernal hue, their gloss of youth; and the trees, in the height of summer, lose perhaps as much in the freshness, variety, and lightness of their foliage, as they gain in the general fullness of it, and the superior size of their leaves.

The midsummer shoot relieves the uniform green that immediately precedes it; in many trees (and in none more than the oak) the effect is singularly beautiful; the old foliage forms a dark back ground, on which the new appears relieved and detached, in all its freshness and brilliancy; it is spring engrafted upon summer. This effect, however, is confined to the nearer objects; the great general change in all vegetation from the green of summer, is pro-

\* The instrument for that purpose is certainly of very ancient date, as Virgil (who probably studied the costume of the heroic age) supposes it to have been in use at the time of the Trojan war, and makes Turnus speak contemptuously of Æneas, for having his locks perfumed, and as madame de Sévigné expresses it, *frisées naturellement avec des fers*;

*Vibratos calido ferro, myrrhæque madentes.*

The natural roughness or crispness of hair is often mentioned as a beauty—*l'auree crespè crini—capelli crespè, e lunghe, e d'oro.*

In many points the hair has a striking relation to trees; they resemble each other in their intricacy, their ductility, the quickness of their growth, their seeming to acquire fresh vigour from being cut, and in their being detached from the solid bodies whence they spring; they are the varied boundaries, the loose and airy fringes, without which mere earth, or mere flesh, however beautifully formed, are bald and imperfect, and want their most becoming ornament.

In catholic countries, where those unfortunate victims of avarice and superstition are supposed to renounce all idea of pleasing our sex, the first ceremony is that of cutting off their hair, as a sacrifice of the most seducing ornament of beauty; and the formal edge of the silet, which prevents a single hair from escaping, is well contrived to deaden the effect of features.

duced by the first frosts of autumn. Then begins that variety of rich glowing tints, which, at the early period of their change, so admirably accord with each other, and form so splendid a mass of colouring; so superior in depth and richness, to that of any other part of the year.

‘ It has often struck me, that the whole system of the Venetian colouring (particularly that of Giorgione and Titian, which has been the great object of imitation) was formed upon the tints of autumn; and that their pictures have thence that golden hue, which gives them (as sir Joshua Reynolds observes) such a superiority over all others. Their trees, foregrounds, and every part of their landscapes, have more strongly than those of any other painters, the deep and rich browns of that season. The same general hue prevails in the draperies of their figures, and even in their flesh, which has neither the silver purity of Guido, nor the freshness of Rubens, but a glow perhaps more enchanting than either. Sir Joshua has remarked, that the silver purity of Guido is more suited to beauty, than that glowing golden hue of Titian: it was natural for him to mention Guido, as being the painter who had most succeeded in beauty of form; but with less of that purity and evenness of tint, there is a freshness in that of Rubens which would admirably accord with beauty, though there are but few instances in his works of such a union.’ P. 194.

Mr. Price’s ideas of ugliness are rather uncommon; but they were required by his system, of which the influence is, in general, too great and extensive. It does not, he thinks, consist in straight lines or in sharp angles, but in massy, lumpish shapelessness. He has, however, confused this question by mixing his remarks on different objects, of which we must judge in different ways. The leaves of the plane-tree and the vine are angular, though not ugly; their beauty is not connected with their individual forms, but with their general masses and their general effect. A sharp turn of a hill is not ugly; but it ceases to be so, only when softened by distance, or when it breaks too great uniformity. In short, the *ugly* has not sufficiently shared the attention of philosophers with the beautiful; and we think this part of our author’s essay very valuable. Long straight lines and sharp angles are undoubtedly ugly: irregular lines and sharp angles may be picturesque: if you soften the irregularity and render the angles less sharp, they approach the beautiful. In the same way a vast unshapen object is ugly, as is also a dead muddy colour; yet, if you bend the outline and swell the surface of the one, and shade the other, they become picturesque, and, in suitable situations, even pleasing. No power of eloquence or reasoning, however, can make sharp and quick returns beautiful: we are willing to agree with Mr. Price in supposing

them occasionally picturesque ; but we would still keep them at a distance, visit them at some seasons, and never take them to our homes.

Of the improvements of Kent, our author does not speak very advantageously. Yet he did much ; and, though a mannerist, without enlarged views, or a very correct and cultivated taste, he introduced a considerable reform into our ornamented grounds. Against the present system, Mr. Price directs his shafts more pointedly ; and, with a pleasant raillery, he will probably be more successful than with sound arguments. The clumps, the belt, and the water, are the themes of much pleasantry and sarcasm.

‘ Before I enter into any particulars, I will make a few observations on what I look upon as the great general defect of the present system ; not as opposed to the old style (though I believe the latter to have been infinitely more free from it) but considered by itself singly, and without comparison. That defect, the greatest of all, and most opposite to the principles of painting, is want of connection—a passion for making every thing distinct and separate. All the particular defects I shall have occasion to notice, in some degree arise from this original sin, and tend towards it. The new creations, and the alterations of what was already in existence, have been all conducted on the same plan of distinctness ; and in consequence of that ruling principle, those numberless ties, those bonds of union (as they may be called) by which the different parts of landscape are so happily connected with each other, are unthought of in what is newly planned, and where they do exist, are destroyed. Yet those are the ties (minute and trifling as they may often appear) by which trees, in all their different arrangements, are reciprocally combined, and on which their balance, and even their contrast, depends ; by which water, when accompanied by trees thus variously arranged, is often so imperceptibly united with land, that in many places the eye cannot discover the perfect spot and time of their union ; yet is no less delighted with that mystery, than with the thousand reflexions and intricacies which attend it. What is the effect, when those ties are not suffered to exist ? You trace every where the exact line of separation ; the water is bounded by a distinct and uniform edge of grass ; the grass by a similar edge of wood ; the trees, and often the house, are distinctly placed upon the grass ; all separated from whatever might group with them, or take off from their solitary insulated appearance : in every thing you trace the hand of a mechanic, not the mind of a liberal artist.’

P. 261.

To this general observation we readily assent ; and, so far as there is a want of connection, we think the fault essential. The clump, as usually managed, is very objectionable ; and indeed, from the gradual changes produced in all plantations

by age, much must be occasionally altered. It is the improver's object, because his character depends on it, to put the place, speedily, into its best form. In a series of years this form is no longer adapted to its character; but this is no fault of the artist: it is an accidental change, for which he is not accountable. If the owner is not himself an artist, these variations are gradually more disadvantageous to the general effect.

To lawns, on the principles of picturesque beauty, Mr. Price is not very favourable; yet he is more indulgent to them than his system led us to expect.

From the third chapter of the second part, on water, we shall select some passages.

‘One of the most striking properties of water, and that which most distinguishes it from the grosser element of earth, is its being a mirror, and a mirror that gives a peculiar freshness and tenderness to the colours it reflects; it softens the stronger lights, though the lucid veil it throws over them seems hardly to diminish their brilliancy; it gives breadth to the shadows, and in many cases a greater depth, while its glassy surface preserves, and seems even to encrease their transparency. These beautiful and varied effects, however, are chiefly produced by the near objects; by trees, and bushes immediately on the banks; by those which hang over the water, and form dark caves beneath their branches; by various tints of the soil where the ground is broken; by roots, and old trunks of trees; by tufts of rushes, and by large stones that are partly whitened by the air, and partly covered with mosses, lichens, and weather-stains; while the soft tufts of grass, and the smooth verdure of meadows with which they are intermixed, appear a thousand times more soft, smooth, and verdant by such contrasts.

‘But to produce reflections there must be objects; for according to a maxim I have heard quoted from the old law of France (a maxim that hardly required the sanction of such venerable authority), *où il n'y a rien, le roi perd ses droits*; and this is generally a case in point with respect to Mr. Brown's artificial rivers. Even when, according to Mr. Walpole's description, “a few trees scattered here and there on its edges, sprinkle the tame bank that accompanies its meanders,” the reflections would not have any great variety or brilliancy.’ P. 331.

It may be questioned whether this criticism is perfectly correct. In a merely picturesque view, it is unexceptionable; but the feelings cannot be brought under the fetters of a system. The eye rests with complacency upon a watery expanse; and it relieves the insipidity of continual green, while the banks, which no improver can keep smooth and regular, will always supply some variety. If the form of the water is pleasing, it adds to the beauty. Thus the bay at Weymouth,

as unvaried and unruffled as any marine prospect can be, with as little picturesque beauty in the remoter hills as hills can afford, is highly pleasing from its extent and its form. A single fact of this kind destroys the airy visions of the mere picturesque improver, and shows that the mind can feel pleasure in the view of objects from which his system tells him none can be expected. A river, meandering through a picturesque country, or through a vale, is beautiful in another way; but the mind must be *exerted* to catch it in its varied course: on the lake it *reposes* with placid tranquillity.

The remarks on the accompaniments of water are not particularly interesting: they are chiefly a repetition of the observations on trees. We shall add only a specimen of Mr. Price's raillery. It is more than usually '*picturesque*' (poignant).

'Mr. Brown and his followers are great economists of their invention: with them walks, roads, brooks, and rivers are, as it were, convertible works. Dry one of their rivers, it is a large walk or road—flood a walk or a road, it is a little brook or river—and the accompaniments (like the drone of a bagpipe) always remain the same.

'A brook, indeed, is not always dammed up; it sometimes (though rarely) is allowed its liberty; but, like animals that are suffered by the owner to run loose, it is marked as private property by being mutilated. No operation in improvement has such an appearance of barbarity, as that of destroying the modest, retired character of a brook: I remember some burlesque lines on the treatment of Regulus by the Carthaginians, which perfectly describe the effect of that operation:

His eyelids they pared,  
Good God! how he stared!

Just so do these improvers torture a brook, by widening it, cutting away its beautiful fringe, and exposing it to day's garish eye.

'If, instead of being always turned into regular pieces of water, brooks were sometimes stopped partially, and to different degrees of height (particularly where there appeared to be natural beds, and where natural banks with trees or with thickets, would then hang over them) there would be a mixture, and a succession of still and of running water; of quick motion, and of clear reflection.'

P. 364.

Though we differ from Mr. Price in some points, we are highly pleased with his work. His delicacy and sensibility are indeed too vivacious; and he expresses his feelings with a warmth of which callous minds can form no adequate idea; but he displays much judgment, good taste, and benevolence.

*An Essay on Chemical Nomenclature, by Stephen Dickson, M.D. &c. In which are comprised Observations on the same Subject, by Richard Kirwan, LL.D. &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Johnson.*

A Dispute about words' is, among scientific inquirers, considered as the most idle engagement; and the various logomachies of metaphysicians and theologists are despised as trifling, or reprobated as absurd. Precision of language is, however, of importance in all literary pursuits; and, under the auspices of Aristotle and Locke, it has been cultivated with no common care. Mere nomenclature has been less regarded. The first defence of this branch of philology, which seemed to make an impression on the minds of philosophers, was in the *Critica Botanica* of Linnæus. It was also cultivated by Dr. Cullen in his *Nosology*; but the great improvements were effected by the French chemists. Philosophers yielded, with reluctant delay, to innovations so violent; but chemistry was cultivated in France with so much success, that those who would pursue the science were obliged to follow it in a new language. The French nomenclature, therefore, began to prevail: the necessity of reform was obvious; and, though the new attempts were often rash, and sometimes inaccurate, a great part was clear, correct, and discriminate.

Dr. Dickson and Mr. Kirwan have corrected what, in the French nomenclature, was inaccurate, and what was redundant. We shall transcribe, from the Introduction, a short defence of the attempt.

' The influence of language upon thought has, in all ages and countries, been considerable. This influence operates favourably to the interests of science, where there are etymologies which lead the mind at once to the intended object of contemplation; where there are well constructed compound words which prevent the labour of study, and the exertions of memory; and even where names of any kind are conferred on objects which, though presenting themselves before us every day, would be disregarded, like the faces of strangers whom we meet in the streets, had they not appropriate designations, an acquaintance with which arouses our attention, impels us to recognize those objects, and tempts us to an investigation of their nature. But in too many instances this influence is no less unfavourable to the advancement of knowledge: poverty of language circumscribes the flight of ideas; inaccuracy of expression precludes precision of thought; equivocal words generate erroneous opinions; the association of improper accessory ideas and judgments with well-known terms diffuses and strengthens prejudices; injudicious etymologies en-



trap the apprehension; and figurative expressions, mistaken for actual definitions, fill up the measure of confusion and inconsistency of thought that flow from the abuses of speech.' p. xi.

' Mr. Kirwan "thought it proper that some attempt should be made, at the present time, to ascertain the principles, and put a stop to the fluctuations of chemical languages." He was also desirous, on another account, of delineating the system of nomenclature which he adopted. "Within these last twenty years," he remarks, "the boundaries of chemistry have been much enlarged by the discovery of many new substances, and a revolution has taken place in some of its most important principles. In such circumstances some alteration of the received language was inevitable. The substances newly discovered, and their compositions, as well with each other as with the substances antiently known, necessarily demanded new names; and the denominations grounded on the abdicated principles required to be new-modelled to suit those that had supplanted them. In this state of things some eminent chemists have aimed at the entire subversion of the antient nomenclature; others have confined their schemes of reformation to such cases only in which the improprieties of denomination were prominent and notorious. With the principles of this class of reformers I confess my agreement. As none of them, however, has as yet published any plan of reformation adapted to the English language; and as I am at present at the eve of publishing a treatise in which many new terms must of course be introduced, I find myself necessitated to trace the outlines of the system of nomenclature I have followed; not from the presumptuous design of imposing it upon others, but merely from the view of rendering my own future communications more intelligible." p. xiv.

As it is probable that this refinement of the chemical nomenclature will be adopted only by degrees, we shall not greatly enlarge our account of it; but we ought to intimate, that this work rises above a mere nomenclature. The philological and critical remarks are numerous, and frequently just; and the chemical observations are sometimes new, and generally ingenious.

Like Linnæus, Dr. Dickson has prefixed some rules of chemical nomenclature, most of which are too obvious and too just not to require our immediate assent.

' The same specific name should never be applied to substances of different species—Synonyms should be sparingly admitted—Ancient names which express the same combinations of ideas as we have occasion to employ should be preferred to new ones, unless they have grown obsolete; but every name ought to be applied as nearly as possible in the sense which general use has annexed to it—New names ought not to convey hypothetical distinctions—

New names ought to assimilate with the language into which they are introduced, and ought to correspond with the genius of the languages from which they are respectively derived—New names ought to be derived from the Latin, in preference to any other foreign language.' P. i.

With the last rule we cannot wholly co-incide: the Greek language is more euphonous, and runs more easily into compound words than the Latin; and it is therefore, in general, preferable. Our author's defence is too long for an extract; and it is one of those parts which have been managed with unusual care, as the engineer's art is more eminently displayed in a weak position.

In the consideration of phlogiston as a principle, Dr. Dickson gives a short but comprehensive view of the remaining controversy on this subject; and in that of mephite (the azote of the French chemists), he considers Dr. Priestley's arguments, in opposition to the composition of water, and gives judicious reasons for not adopting azote, nitrogene, or alkaligene.

The account of ancient opinions respecting air, and the history of these doctrines down to the gas of Van Helmont, are curious and interesting. The oxygenated nitrous gas our author would call epinitrous air. To the spirit of vitriol he gives the usual appellation of vitriolic acid, and, to the volatile kind, that of sulphureous acid. He speaks of the oxy-vitriolic, the nitro-vitriolic, and the mephitisied vitriolic acid; and he has reformed, in many instances, the nomenclature of acids.

The alterations in the names of alkalis, earths, and metals, are not of great importance; but the incidental disquisitions are entertaining. On the whole, Dr. Dickson has enlivened a dull subject with art and learning; and his work will probably survive the nomenclature which gave occasion to it.

*Malvern Hills: a Poem. By Joseph Cottle. 4to. 2s. 6d. Sewed. Longman. 1798.*

*Malvern, a Descriptive and Historical Poem; by Luke Booker, LL. D. Dedicated to the Right Honourable Julia, Viscountess Dudley and Ward. 4to. 3s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1798.*

DR. Booker expresses his surprise that no poet should previously have celebrated the delightful scenery of Malvern; but it is more extraordinary that two poems upon the subject should have appeared at the same time. We agree with him, in considering descriptive poetry as a difficult species of composition; but he has spoken too strongly of 'the difficulty of

duly treating so sublime a theme, — of adequately delineating so rich a prospect; a theme that transcends the fullest and most cultivated extent of poetical ability; a prospect, on beholding which,

‘ Description fails

And drops her pencil in despair.’ p. xi.

Of the two writers Dr. Booker is more abundant in local knowledge; but this is sometimes disadvantageously introduced, particularly when he speaks

‘ Of all the numerous seats of elegance

Which rise around him—

Such the demesne of HORNVOLD, and such

A TEMPEST’S, BRYDGES’, YATES’—’

Both poets are equally digressive; Mr. Cottle, in expressing, too diffusely perhaps, the feelings of benevolence and devotion excited by the scenery; Dr. Booker, in dwelling too long upon the manufactories and buildings and bishops of Worcester. In no point are they more different than in their opinions respecting commerce. The latter praises the weavers and the ‘artists in porcelain,’ and has inserted a Philippic against shoe-strings, which, we have no doubt, will be considered as highly just and poetical by all the buckle-makers of Birmingham. In the eye of the former, the commercial world assumes a different appearance; he speaks of large manufactories in a manner which reflects credit on his feelings; and the evils pointed out in his notes \* demand attention.

In describing the immediate scenery of Malvern, Dr. Booker excels:

‘ Ye mountains nobly prominent! from far

Seen by your poet,—daily seen with joy—

Tho’ vasty prospects—e’en to Cambria’s hills,

He boasts, and tho’ his comprehensive view

Be richly graced with Nature’s rival charms,—

Water, and wood, and hill, and many a fane

With tower or spire,—you chiefly he admires,

Sublimely rising like the giant-clouds

Which eve assembles in the western sky,

When day’s bright monarch, curtain’d round with gold,

His other hemisphere retires to bless.

As Athos o’er th’ Ægean sea, I mark

You, o’er the champaign, rear your shadowing form

Irregularly huge, august, and high:

Moss pil’d on moss, and rock on ponderous rock,

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\* We allude more particularly to the note respecting the pin and white lead manufactories, p. 45.

In Alpine majesty,—your lofty brows  
 Sometimes dark frowning, and anon serene,—  
 Wrapt now in clouds invisible, and now  
 Glowing with golden sunshine: now mid-way  
 Broad nebulous zone engirds you, like the belt  
 Of that resplendent star whose mighty orb,  
 Rolling thro' boundless space, the mine of night  
 Illumines; in his never-ceasing course  
 Attended by his moons of fainter light.

‘ Not distant now, ye mountains! I admire  
 Your form stupendous; but (oft with'd) approach  
 Early, while yet the noiseless village sleeps,  
 To gain your summit; season fit to rise  
 Above the level plain so high in air.  
 No burning sun now vapours grey exhales  
 From humid meads, enveloping the view:  
 No winds yon cottage chimney's curling smoke  
 Disperse, scarce e'en disturb. The slender stems  
 Of hare-bells blue are motionless and still:  
 The thistle-down assumes its silvery wing,  
 As if to wanton with the morning breeze,  
 But to the ground, unbuoyant, soon descends.  
 Tranquillity the elements pervades,  
 And harmony the woods. No cloud obscures  
 The wide horizon's undulating line,  
 Where join'd seem earth and sky,—where azure mist  
 Veils the soft landscape melting into light.  
 —This winding path, close cropt by nibbling sheep  
 (Its end the summit)—now my steps pursue.  
 Keep earthward bent the eye,—forbearance wise,  
 Diminishing, by no impatient gaze,  
 Its pleas'd astonishment when sudden bursts  
 The full, the wide circumference on its view.  
 —When shall forbearance cease?—my beating heart  
 Pants, like an eager steed, for liberty,  
 When sounds the trump, to rush into the war.—  
 —Now level treads the foot—the summit's gain'd—  
 “ Great God of Nature!—these thy glorious works!  
 Almighty! thine this universal frame!” P. 7.

But, in the description of the well, Mr. Cottle is superior:—

‘ ————— the holy well.

A plain stone dwelling, weather-worn and rude  
 Stands singly by. There never sound is heard  
 But the bleak wind, that, howling from above,  
 Sweeps the bald mountain's side, and urging on  
 Its boisterous way, at length forgets its rage,

In dallying with the valley's scattered trees:  
 Save when the sky is hush'd, and to the ear  
 The never-ended bubblings of the spring  
 Send the same note—the same unvarying note.' P. 29.

In his account of Hanly Castle there is one beautiful passage:

' Now not one stone remains to claim the tear  
 Of passing man—save when the hollow winds,  
 Bending the night-shade's head, or nettle rank,  
 Disclose some sculptured fragment, green and damp,  
 And half conceal'd in earth.' P. 34.

The reflections suggested by this spot, and by the fall of its possessors, are superior to any part of Dr. Booker's poem.

' Where is now the scowl  
 Of haughty Independence? where the views  
 That agitated once their glowing breasts  
 With hopes of high achievement, and inspired  
 Their youthful progeny to dare the wars  
 Of Cambria or of France? awhile they liv'd  
 In splendor's gaisiest hall, and laugh'd, and sung  
 The merry roundelay, or bade the harp  
 Swell with tumultuous joy. No more is heard  
 The song of gladness: and the blooming cheek—  
 The graceful step that held th' admiring eye,  
 Hath ceas'd to charm! the throbbing heart is still!  
 Both fires and children, all have had their days  
 Of pain and ease, disquietude and joy,  
 And now repose on earth, our common nurse!  
 She whisper'd not, nor with enticing look  
 Call'd to her arms these sons of affluence,  
 She never calls the great, the rich, the proud  
 With soft and winning accent, but preserves  
 Silence unbroken, save when some slow knell  
 Sends through the air at midnight a report  
 Warning and terrible. But to the poor  
 She yields a voice of comfort, sanctified  
 And pointed rightly by that word of truth  
 Heaven hath vouchsaf'd to man. Most goodly then  
 These scatter'd spires appear, these aged towers  
 Which to some little flock the path-way tell  
 That leads to life eternal, where the ills  
 Which strew'd their mortal way shall never come.  
 And honor'd be the men who here preside,  
 And, with sincerity and holy zeal,  
 Point the celestial road! to simple minds  
 Reveal those holy truths, the which to hear,  
 And from the heart receive most willingly,

Blunts the keen shafts of sorrow ; well they know  
The conflict will be short—the triumph sure.' P. 35.

In their allusions to the battle of Evesham, both writers speak of the earl of Leicester without one palliating epithet. The name of Simon de Montfort is infamous; remembering the Albigenſes, we connect with it the ideas of religious persecution and priestly massacres : but the vices of the father were not those of the son ; and, unjustifiable as the conduct of the earl of Leicester was in many respects, the man must have possessed some virtues whose memory, branded as it was, was long dear to the people, and who, though condemned as a traitor, was long revered as a saint. The crimes of this nobleman are remembered ; but he is not enumerated, as he ought to be, among the eminent persons to whom England is indebted for its liberties.

Mr. Cottle's versification is preferable to that of the other writer ; and, upon the whole, though the descriptive part is less appropriate, we give the preference to his poem. It does honour to his feelings and his abilities. We will give another extract from it : the description of the piper is admirable, and the simile at the conclusion is new, just, and beautiful.

' Even now my heart beats high, for now I hear  
The village bells beneath play merrily.  
From hill to hill imperfect gladness bounds,  
And floating murmurs die upon the air.  
It is the long-look'd pastime now begun !  
Aye ! there they are upon the level green,  
Maiden and rustic, deck'd in best attire  
And ushering in the Whitsun holidays.  
Weaving the mazy dance, fantastic, whilst  
Encircled by a gaping croud of boys,  
The merry piper stands, and, capering, plays ;  
Or, half forgetful of his half-learn'd tune,  
Looks scantways to behold his fav'rite lass  
Pair'd with another ; haply, smiling too.  
The aged ploughman now forgets his team,  
And, tho' to join the skipping throng too old,  
Laughs to see others laugh, he knows not why,  
Or, if in graver mood, looks wond'rous wise,  
And tells his hoiden daughters as they pass,  
Hold, maidens ! hold ! no whispering in the dance.  
All, all is life and soothing jollity !  
That king of sports is there, the mountebank,  
With antic tricks, or, with no sparing hand,  
Dealing around some nostrum, famed, alike  
Specific in all pains and maladies.

And there the village matrons gaily trimm'd,  
 With lace and tucker, handed down secure  
 Through a long line of prudent ancestors;  
 And never shewn to gaping multitude,  
 Save at some marriage gay, or yearly wake.  
 Musing the mothers look o'er all the plain;  
 A cheerful smile unbends their wrinkled brow,  
 The days departed start again to life,  
 And all the scenes of childhood re-appear,  
 Faint but more tranquil, like the changing sun  
 To him who slept at noon and wakes at eve.  
 Children of innocence, sport on in peace!  
 Enjoy the fair, but fleeting morn of life,  
 And may no tempest spoil your holiday.' p. 64.

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*A Review of Mr. Wilberforce's Treatise, entitled A practical View of the prevailing Religious System of professed Christians, &c. In Letters to a Lady. By Thomas Belsham. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Johnson. 1798.*

MR. Wilberforce, in his views of Christianity, seems to differ as much from the church of England on the one hand, as the author of the present work does on the other. The gloomy spirit of Calvin prevails in the former, the philosophy of Socinus in the latter. Hence a member of the church, who has perused one of these performances, would act wisely in taking the other as a corrective; and, from the impression which the two works have made upon us, we have reason to think that he would come to this conclusion: the one, if true, he would almost wish to be false; the other, if false, he would almost wish to be true. The one leaves him under the guidance of his passions; the other exhorts him to submit to the control of his reason.

From this view of the subject, and from what we have already said of Mr. Wilberforce's production\*, our readers may collect the chief articles in which the two authors differ. We shall, therefore, only select a few passages, whence a true judgment may be formed of the sentiments and style of Mr. Belsham's work. On character is this judicious observation;

'Character is the sum total of moral and intellectual habits, and the proportion of virtuous habits, in the worst characters, exceeds that of vicious ones. But no character takes the denomination of virtuous unless all the habits are on the side of virtue: whereas one evil habit is sufficient to stamp a character vicious.' p. 14.

The same sentiment is enforced in another letter.

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\* See Crit. Rev. New Arr. Vol. XX. p. 164.

'Character is the sum total of habits. But in forming an estimate of moral worth, it is an invariable principle that one vice stamps a character vicious, while a thousand virtues will not atone for one immoral habit. If a man be a liar, or dishonest, or intemperate, or impious, his character is denominated vicious, with whatever virtues it may otherwise be adorned. "He who keepeth the whole law, and offendeth in one point, is guilty of all." And the reason is evident, virtue is that system of habits which conduces to the greatest ultimate happiness; vice is that which diminishes happiness or produces misery. The union therefore of a single vice with a constellation of virtues, will contaminate them all; will prevent them from producing their proper effect, and will, in proportion as it prevails, diminish the happiness, or produce the misery of the agent, who never can attain the true end of his existence till this vice is eradicated. He cannot enjoy perfect moral health till every mental disorder is radically removed.'

P. 37.

This view of character, formed by habits, is totally opposite to the sudden changes by the new birth of the Calvinists; and the different effects of reason and passion in religion are strikingly described in the following quotation.

'After all, though the objects of religion are of sufficient dignity and magnitude to excite and interest our best affections, when steadily contemplated, it ought to be remembered that a mechanical glow of the passions is by no means essential to the practice of religion and virtue, especially at the commencement of a virtuous course. Men enter upon and pursue their occupations in life, not from passionate feelings, but from rational conviction that these are the best means of providing in a just and honourable way for the subsistence, comfort, and respectability of themselves and their families: and if the employment is at first irksome, the principles upon which they act will stimulate them to perseverance, and by degrees they will form an attachment to professions to which originally they were little inclined. In like manner, a person of reflection will enter upon the practice of religious virtue, not from any passionate and transient emotions, but from the deliberate conviction of his judgment, that a pious and virtuous conduct will be ultimately conducive to his best interest; and though the practice of virtue may occasionally be unpleasant, may require self-denial, and may expose him to difficulties and inconveniencies, which would subdue a resolution inspired only by the passions, they will make little impression upon a purpose which originates in the deliberate conviction of the understanding. And by degrees, habits of rectitude will be insensibly established, and virtue will be loved and practised for its own sake. The religious principle is of too much importance to be made dependent upon the passions,



which wise men discard in all affairs of moment, lest they should warp and mislead the judgment.' P. 82.

With regard to the observance of a sabbath, our author leans more to the general opinion than Mr. Wilberforce.

'To a true Christian, every day is a sabbath, every place is a temple, and every action of life an act of devotion, A Christian is not required to be more holy, nor permitted to take greater liberties upon one day than upon another. Whatever is lawful or expedient upon any one day of the week is, under the Christian dispensation, equally lawful and expedient on any other day.' P. 20.

A 'sabbatical spirit,' and mere 'ritual practices are very improperly, and unwarrantably represented, as "essential constituents of a devotional frame :"' This is another instance of that narrow and censorious spirit which is generated by too great an attachment to the forms of religion. A man who goes to church four times a day, commonly thinks himself a better Christian than he, who is contented with three services only; who in his turn triumphs in his spiritual superiority over the man that satisfies himself with two. While the latter, if not more than usually charitable, regards his Christian brother who goes but once, as little better than a heathen.' P. 141.

We cannot but express our disapprobation, when we find the mode of worship of a great body of Christians stigmatised with the name of idolatry, and the term *Unitarian* (claimed with reason by the members of the church of England) denied to all who have not similar ideas of the unity of Godhead with this writer. Neither point came necessarily under discussion; and disgust may by such language be excited, where it ought particularly to be prevented. But we must now take our leave of the two antagonists; and to whatever praise Mr. Wilberforce may be entitled from his Calvinistic brethren, a much greater portion is due to Mr. Belsham from the persons of his persuasion; and, whatever may be the fate of the doctrine of each writer, from the latter we cannot withhold the credit due to one who is an acute reasoner, and, in general, a candid controversialist.

*The Oriental Collections for April, May, and June, 1797.*  
4to. 10s. 6d. sewed. Harding. 1798.

IN our review of the first number of this repository\*, we expressed our hope that the work would become more interesting in its progress; but we cannot say that our expectations have been answered.

\* See our XXXIII Volume, New Arr. p. 73.

In the second number, we are first presented with some original notes, which the editor found in the hand-writing of the traveller Chardin, in a manuscript copy of the Gulistan of Sadi. They tend to explain various passages of that celebrated work.

The next article is a conclusive continuation of the *memoranda* respecting the Dekan, or the Nizam's country. The writer speaks with rapture of the engaging and elegant manners of the military officers and the gentry of that state; and he adds, that an European is particularly surprised at the behaviour of the children.

‘ With all that is infantine and engaging, they can upon cases of ceremony assume the unaffected steadiness of an old courtier. By paying attention to what was said to these children by their tutors, and by observing the most admired and popular characters among the men, I endeavoured to acquire some insight into what stile of manners was held in greatest repute among the Moors; and I found the leading principle of external behaviour to be a majestic and martial deportment, a serene and steady countenance, which should remain calm and unaltered amidst the greatest events, neither manifesting signs of depression nor exaltation, but capable of that pliability which softens the countenance to the reception of friends, and accompanies good offices with a benignant smile. This frequently borders upon dissimulation, since condemned persons of rank have often been dismissed from the presence to execution without threats or menaces, but with every mark of politeness.’ p. 100.

Among other particulars relative to the inhabitants of this territory, we observe the mention of the following circumstances.

‘ Though they shave their hair close, and that their dress has been the same for many ages, admitting no variety of fashion, yet they pass a long time at their toilettes in washing, rubbing, and perfuming the whole body; which being frequently exposed to sight, (indeed always in their undress at home) they are very careful to polish and render smooth and shining: and in order to supple their limbs, and give grace and strength to their bodies, they make use of violent exercises within the house, with dumb bells, or heavy pieces of wood, which they whirl about the head, so as to open the chest and strengthen the arm, which may account for their being such excellent swordsmen. They also stretch themselves at full length upon their hands and feet, kissing the ground hundreds of times without suffering the body to come in contact with it, which occasions a general exertion to the whole frame. This, with their exercise on horseback, may account for their activity and ability to undergo fatigue when called upon by war; which

they would certainly be incapable of doing, if, as many have supposed, they were to pass their lives supinely lolling upon sofas smoking their pipes.' p. 101.

Some specimens of the vulgar dialect of Morocco are followed by 'Arabian and Persian Traditions of the Origin of Writing.' The prophet Enoch (says an Arabian author) was the first who, after Enos the son of Seth, wrote with a pen; and, in the Shah Nameh, the admired poem of Firdausi, the *deeves* (dæmons) are said to have taught letters to Tahmuras, king of Persia.

Remarks on the affinity between a nuptial custom of the Persians and one which prevailed among the ancient Jews and Greeks, are given by major Ouseley. Mr. Eyles Irwin has described the grotto of Camoens at Macao, of which a print is introduced. A correspondent from Cambridge recommends the *Ajaieb Al-Makhloukat*, or the Wonders of Creation, to the attention of orientalists. This is the work of Zechariah ben Mohammed ben Mahmoud al Cazviny, who died about the year 1275 of the Christian æra; and it offers to an 'ingenious translator a rich fund of materials for extracts.' Quotations from a Turkish manuscript appear in the sequel; and, in a tedious letter, Mr. Granville Penn refers the word *reppa*, used by Lycophron, as well as *rup*, to an Egyptian origin.

A second extract from the historical work of Ahmed ben Asem of Cufa has been translated by Mr. Gerrans. It relates to the flight and murder of Yezdegerd, the Persian monarch. This prince, according to Ahmed, was received into a mill-house, and killed, while he was reposing, by the servants of the miller; for which act of savage treachery, even the pursuers of the king put them and their master to death. But Aboul-Faraj informs us, that the royal fugitive was slain by some horsemen from the army of his enemies, while he was soliciting the miller's protection. On the subject of this difference of statement, Mr. Gerrans thus writes in a note:

'Great as the authority of Abil Pharage may be, the circumstantial account which Ahmed Ibn Asem gives of the expedition against Persia, the heroic actions of a Persian prince, and other chiefs who fell in that bloody and decisive battle which subjugated their country to the Moslems, inclines me to give the preference to the Cufean manuscript.' p. 163.

We may here observe, that neither account is improbable, though both cannot be true.

In a short essay, it is affirmed that

'Chehlminar of the present day is known to be Istakhar, and Istakhar by Oriental records is proved to have been the seat of empire, the metropolis of Persia, where Alexander sat on the throne of his vanquished foe, the burial place of the ancient kings; in

short, though nothing now remains but the ruins of its imperial palace, the Persepolis of classic history.' P. 171.

The editor has extracted a description of Cashmere from Rase'ddin, a Persian poet. It is florid, even to puerility. We will quote the *critique* on the Divan of that writer.

' In a work of such magnitude as the Divan of Rased'din, (which contains near 15,000 distichs), it is not to be expected that all the poems should possess equal merit. His style is not by any means sublime: the thoughts in many of his sonnets, and indeed the very words, are borrowed from the more celebrated poets; yet, in a multiplicity of instances, he exhibits a pleasing originality, which distinguishes him from the crowd of Persian versifiers, whose Divans in general contain little more than tiresome descriptions of spring and its delights, in which the same images recur a thousand times, or incoherent rhapsodies, half amorous, and half religious. Though similar inconsistencies abound in the sonnets of our poet, who appears to have been at once a passionate lover, a zealous devotee in religion, and an enthusiastick admirer of beauty, (a combined character applicable, perhaps, to all the Persian lyrics), yet his Divan is peculiarly valuable, on account of the numerous local and historical allusions found in it;—anecdotes of men whom he had personally known;—descriptions of places he had travelled or resided in;—of curious objects he had seen, and of transactions in which he himself had been concerned.' P. 173.

Among the succeeding articles are an ode of Khosroo (elegantly translated), observations on the poetry of Hafez, two Persian sonnets, and one in the Turkish language.

*Elements of the Critical Philosophy: containing a concise Account of its Origin and Tendency; a View of all the Works published by its Founder, Professor Immanuel Kant; and a Glossary for the Explanation of Terms and Phrases. To which are added three Philological Essays; chiefly translated from the German of John Christopher Adelung, Aulic Counsellor and first Librarian to the Elector of Saxony. By A. F. M. Willich, M. D. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Longman. 1798.*

THE philosophy of Kant is little known in this country. The Germans find it very difficult to understand him in their own language; and the English will not take the trouble to make themselves masters of all the new meanings which he gives to old words. We are however indebted to the author of the work before us, for enabling our countrymen to form some idea of the new philosophy, without encumbering them-

selfes with all the works to which it has given birth. The system is founded upon this principle, 'that there is a free reason independent of all experience and sensation;' and one chief branch is

'To investigate the whole store of original notions discoverable in our understanding, and which lie at the foundation of all our knowledge; and at the same time to authenticate their true descent, by showing that they are not derived from experience, but are pure productions of the understanding.' P. 44.

This doctrine is opposite to that which we have imbibed from Locke, importing that our ideas are derived from sensation and reflection. As we despair of making the Kantian principles intelligible in common language to our readers, we shall content ourselves with a few extracts, which may stimulate some of them to make deeper inquiries into these metaphysics.

'BELIEF—*Glaube*,

'1, signifies the act of taking something for true, on account of sufficient subjective, without any objective, reasons for doing so; or, in other words, to conceive things as subjects of cognition, or to admit their possible existence; because reason enjoins it. These subjective grounds are a certain interest, certain purposes;—

'2, the habit, the moral way of thinking, by which reason considers as true, what is inaccessible to our theoretical cognition of things;—

'3, in particular, *fides sacra*; the adoption of religious principles.' P. 146.

'CHANGE—*Veränderung*,

accidens, is the succession of different states, transition of a thing from one state to another; the co-existence of what is standing and steady in time, with that which changes; the connection of opposite predicates in one and the same object, but at different times, v. g. motion, i. e. a being and not-being of the same thing, in the same place, but at different periods of time.' P. 148.

'CRITICISM,

with Kant, signifies a critical mode of proceeding (doubts of delay) i. e. the maxim of general distrust with respect to all synthetical judgments *a priori*, until we have acquired a view of the universal ground of their possibility, in the essential conditions of our faculties of cognition.

'CRITIQUE OF PURE REASON,

or transcendental critique, is the science of the pure faculty of reason; the inquiry into those particulars, which reason is able to

know and to perform, from its own sources, and independent of experience.' P. 152.

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‘DIVINES—*Geistliche*

are teachers of the pure moral religion; as being opposed to ‘priests,’ i. e. the consecrated ministers of pious customs and ceremonies.’ P. 155.

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‘TOTALITY—*Allheit*,

the representation of the whole, (*universitas*); that function of the understanding, by which, when it is applied to conceptions, a plurality of cognitions is comprehended and connected into a general one; when applied to perceptions, totality is nothing else than plurality considered in things as unity, and forms a species of a category, viz. that of quantity.’ P. 181.

But the Kantian philosophy is not always obscure: it condescends at times to use plain terms; and the following is a good definition of man.

‘MAN—*Mensch*,

a moral being, subject to moral laws by virtue of his rational nature: hence it is highly improper to call him a fighting animal, as some of the modern court-philosophers are pleased to define him.—A bad man, is he who has adopted deviation from the moral law as a maxim; a good man, who values the moral law as his supreme maxim;—an accomplished man, who is both inclined and able to communicate his agreeable feelings to others;—a man of good morals, whose actions correspond with the moral law.’ P. 167.

In this work we find a catalogue of Kant’s writings, and a satisfactory account of each. The writer was a pupil of Kant, and is still attached to his philosophy. But most of our readers will be better pleased with the three essays of Adelung, a name little known in England, though it is that of a very extraordinary linguist. His dictionary of the German language is the completest lexicographical work ever published; and, compared with it, the dictionary compiled by Dr. Johnson is a trifling work. The merits and demerits of the latter are the subject of the third essay; and the admirers of Johnson will not be pleased with seeing so many faults pointed out in the work. In the two former essays we observe a good account of the English language; part of which is taken from the introductory portions of the New Annual Register. Of a remarkable circumstance in our language, Adelung has formed better notions than his editor.

‘The more refined Normannic tongue, with which the people

were already acquainted, was mingled with the dialect of the natives: and as England henceforth continued to improve in knowledge and taste, by its intercourse with France, it happened, that the French language displayed its influence more and more upon that of the English; particularly as its kindred dialect, the Normannic, had already paved the way for this mixture. Hence, too, we can explain the singular phenomenon, that of two names given to the same object, the one of which is of Saxon-Danish, and the other of Normannic or French extraction, the latter should be more dignified than the former, or, at least, used more frequently among the higher classes of society. The words *ox*, *calf*, *wether*, are derived from the Danish Saxon; but *beef*, *veal*, and *mutton*, from the Normannic French. Many other instances of a similar nature occur in modern English.' p. lxxxvi.

The meat was bought of Saxon butchers by Saxon servants; the masters spoke of it in the language of their own country; and thus by degrees it acquired a French appellation, while the animal retained its original name. The German philologist, however, is in the wrong, when he attributes, in the following instance, bad taste to the people of this country.

'England, since the preceding century, has been gradually adopting the round Italian letter, in all writings designed for the higher and middle classes; while, on the contrary, in such writings as are immediately addressed to the common people (for instance, in acts of parliament, public deeds, &c.) the old angular character, generally called "engrossing," is still used; because they have been long accustomed to it, and have not yet acquired a sufficient degree of taste, to perceive its inelegance.' p. lxi.

The people in general are disgusted with this engrossing style; and it is only one of the many barbarisms to which we are subjected by the self-interest of a profession, established for the explanation of law.

The advantage of studying German, to obtain a complete knowledge of our own language, must strike every one who reads these essays. The basis of our language is German. The deviations in orthography and accentuation arise from the great mixture of French words, introduced at the Norman conquest. The reader of German will be at no loss in words of German origin; and if he joins to this knowledge that of the French language, he can find few difficulties in his own. We have not yet seen Adelung's English and German dictionary; but, from our acquaintance with his German dictionary, and the remarks in these essays, we are persuaded that it will be a very useful work to the English student.

*A Walk through Wales, in August 1797, by the Rev. Richard Warner, of Bath. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Dilly. 1798.*

A Tour in Wales is now fashionable; but we cannot say that the particular mode of travelling pursued by Mr. Warner is perfectly consistent with the ostentatious spirit of the age, or the ideas and manners of the *beau monde*. Pedestrian travellers are usually treated with contempt; though we allow that this is a treatment which they by no means deserve.

The volume contains eighteen letters; and, at the beginning of each, except the last, the progressive *route* is engraven on wood. A view of Tintern abbey, in *aqua tinta*, is prefixed to the work.

Having passed through Monmouthshire, Mr. Warner and his companion proceeded through the shires of Brecon and Radnor into that of Cardigan, where they were filled with admiration at the view of the charms of Hafod, the seat of colonel Johnes, and were strongly disposed to confirm the enthusiastic praises bestowed upon this spot by Mr. George Cumberland\*.

When our travellers had entered the shire of Merioneth, they hastened towards Cader-Idris, and began to ascend that lofty mountain.

'We proceeded' (says Mr. Warner) 'to the Pen-yr-Cader, the highest peak of the mountain, passing on our left the saddle of the giant Idris, (from whom the mountain receives its name) an immense *cwm*, its bottom filled with a beautiful lake called Llyn-Cair, and its sides formed by perpendicular cliffs at least 1000 feet in height. Here we found the Alpine grasses, the *aira cespitosa*, and the *poa Alpina*; beautiful masses of spar, specimens of pyrites, and a stone much resembling that volcanic substance called pumice stone. We were now upon the apex of the second mountain in Wales, in point of height, and 2850 feet above the green, near the neighbouring town of Dolgelly.' p. 98.

'From the rude heap of adventitious stones which form what is called the bed of the giant, for several hundred yards, the mountain wears a singular appearance. Its surface is covered with a stream of rocky fragments of different magnitude, and lying in all directions, their shape for the most part columnar and quadrangular, and many being from three to seven feet in length. All of them bear the marks of attrition, and probably were thrown into their present rude, disjointed situation, by that great convulsion of



nature, when "the fountains of the great deep were broken up, and the windows of heaven were opened." P. 99.

The romantic falls of the Cayne and the Mouddach, in the same county, are described with spirit; and, of a delightful scene of retirement, the following sketch is given.

'The beautiful vale of Festiniog spread itself to the eye, comprehending every object that can enrich or diversify a landscape. Noble mountains rising on every side, some thickly mantled with wood, others lifting their bare, rocky heads into the clouds. A meandering river rolling through extensive meads, which its fertilizing waters clothe with constant verdure. The picturesque chapel and neat cottages of Maentwrog, occupying the centre of the vale; and the elegant seat of Mr. Oakley, called Tan-y-Bwlch hall, with its noble woods decorating the declivity of a mountain on the northern side. Here, for the first time since we have been in North-Wales, we were gratified in seeing the spirit of agricultural improvement exerted to some extent, and with considerably good effect. The vale of Festiniog consists in general of a soil rather mossy and spongy, the consequence of having formerly been always overflowed at spring tides. Aware of the injury which these inundations occasioned to the land, Mr. Oakley determined to prevent them by embankments. Having effected this, he next turned his attention to draining the ground thus secured, which he did so effectually as to render its produce just triple to what it hitherto had been. His large drains and neat embankments rather adorn than injure the picture; as the former are like small canals, and the latter have the appearance of raised terrace walks, surmounted with a neat white rail.' P. 115.

Our two pedestrians had too much curiosity to neglect an ascent of the mountain of Snowdon; but the weather was unfavourable for a survey. For a few minutes, however, they were indulged with a clear view from the summit. The prospect was 'not dissimilar to the view from Cader-Idris.'

They afterwards visited the town and castle of Caernarvon. The latter (says Mr. Warner)

'is unquestionably a fine specimen of ancient military architecture, but it does not produce those lively emotions in the mind, which edifices of this nature are apt to excite, from the circumstance of its being kept in nice repair, and inhabited. The idea of its high antiquity and ancient splendour is interrupted and destroyed by the patchwork of modern reparation, and the littleness of a cottager's domestic œconomy seen within its walls. Exclusive of this, it wants the fine circumstance of a mantle of ivy to relieve, and soften down the displeasing red tinge which it receives from the stone used in erecting it. Its towers are certainly very beautiful, being polygonal, and surmounted with light and elegant

turrets. The great entrance is equally striking, a lofty gateway under a stupendous tower, in the front of which appears a gigantic statue of the Conqueror, grasping in his right hand a dagger. The town is neat and cheerful, and not destitute of good houses. One very large and ancient edifice attracted our attention; it is called the *Plas Mawr*, or great house, and appears to have been the residence of the lord of the manor. Two dates, in conspicuous plates, notify that it was built during the years 1590 and 1591; and, indeed, it affords a good specimen of the aukward style of architecture of that time, which was neither Gothic nor classical, but an heterogeneous mixture of both.' p. 137.

The attractions of Bangor our author extols, or rather exaggerates:

'We left Bangor with strong impressions in its favour, having never seen a place which united so many beauties in so narrow a circle; the sublime mountains of Caernarvonshire at a short distance from it; the picturesque scenery of its own immediate neighbourhood; and the ocean spreading its broad bosom within two miles of the town. Add to this, also, the important circumstance of its being one of the cheapest towns in the three kingdoms, and few others will appear to be so inviting and desirable for a residence as Bangor.' p. 143.

Corwen, through which he passed in his way to Llangollen, he represents 'as a small and *neat* town;' but, when we saw it, we did not observe any neatness in it. Dinas-bran hill is thus mentioned with its castle:

'We proceeded over the fields to Dinas-Bran Hill, which we ascended with considerable toil and some difficulty, as towards the top it becomes extremely steep. On the very crown of it are seen the ruins of its ancient castle, and surely never was a better spot chosen for an edifice of this kind. It is well contrasted with the situation of Valle-Crucis Abbey, which the castle overlooks and formerly protected; and both spots are such as bespeak the original designation of the buildings erected on them; the former for menace and hostility, the latter for meditation and prayer. The prospect from this elevation is grand, diversified, and beautiful, embracing every feature of landscape; mountain and valley, wood and village, river and rock; with the minuter ornaments of neat mansions and cultivated inclosures.' p. 170.

In the next letter, the persons, manners, and habits of the Welsh, are properly delineated; and the characteristic sketch is closed with these remarks.

'Both men and women are vivacious, cheerful, and intelligent, not exhibiting that appearance of torpor and dejection which characterize the labouring poor of our own country; their wants being

few, are easily supplied; a little milk, which their own mountain goat, or the benevolence of a neighbouring farmer, affords them, an oaten cake, and a few potatoes, furnish the only meal which they desire. Unvitiated by communication with polished life, they continue to think and act as nature dictates. Confined to their own mountains, they witness no scenes of profusion and extravagance to excite envy or malignity, by a comparison between their own penury and the abundance of others. They look round and see nothing but active industry and unrepining poverty, and are content.' P. 182.

From North-Wales Mr. Warner and his friend hastened into the counties of Salop and Hereford; and, after amusing themselves with a survey of the beauties of the Wye, they returned to Bath, having walked 463 miles in eighteen days.

These letters are amusing; the style is in general neat; and, though many of the observations are trite, the volume may prove useful to future rambles in Wales.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### P O L I T I C S, &c.

*Proposal of a Substitute for Funding in Time of War. Addressed to the Right Honorable William Pitt, Chancellor of the Exchequer, &c. &c. &c. By John Prinsep, Merchant. 8vo. 2s. Debrett. 1797.*

THE plan here recommended is not entirely novel, as a similar expedient has been practised in India with success. It is proposed by Mr. Prinsep, that, after a fixed day, there shall be issued 'one only description of government paper,' called bills or notes of confederation, bearing an interest of five per cent. payable half-yearly at the bank; that these bills shall be registered according to the priority of their creation; and that, from the appointed day, government shall make, with very few exceptions, no payments in cash or bank-notes. The money, accruing in the mean time, shall be applied to the monthly discharge of the confederation bills; and, until the complete payment of these notes, government must not issue any other kind of debenture or obligation, alter the interest of money or the premium on the bills, negotiate any new loan, or add to the funded debt of Great-Britain. Monthly accounts of the bills paid off are to be printed; and the king, with the consent of three-fourths of his privy-council and some other persons, in case of invasion, or a dread of invasion, may oblige

the bank, the East-India company, and other corporate bodies, to make their dividends in confederation paper, which they will receive for cash from government. At the conclusion of peace, the bills shall be entitled to subscription into the consolidated fund of three per cent. at the medium price of that stock on the day of ratification.

There is some merit in this plan: but we tremble at the author's suggestions on the delicacy of his financial instrument. It would, he thinks, have an admirable effect,

' provided no convulsion happen in the kingdom—that no corrupt influence be suffered to invade the sacred pledge held out to the world; no partial payment or misappropriation of the money. One false step of this nature, and all is over. This immense machine will submit to regulation and may be governed, like a steam-engine or a cotton mill, by a dial or a barometer, but if abruptly checked in its progress or soiled in its mechanism, the whole goes to pieces in a moment. The crash would be fatal.' p. 50.

Having seen the state of the assignats in France, we are not without similar apprehensions from the increase of paper currency in this island.

*A Reply to some Parts of the Bishop of Landaff's Address to the People of Great Britain. By Gilbert Wakefield, B. A. The Third Edition. 8vo. 1s. Sold by the Author, at Hackney. 1798.*

We merely announce this edition for the purpose of informing our readers, that the original reply has received some additions, and sustained some alterations and retrenchments, calculated to render it less offensive to the ruling powers.

*Sound an Alarm to all the Inhabitants of Great Britain, from the least to the greatest; by Way of Appendix to "Reform or Ruin." 8vo. 1s. Wright. 1798.*

This writer is of opinion, that the intemperance of some of the adversaries of the court first deprived them of the confidence of the nation, and that political reform has been, with others, a pretence for revolutions of a sweeping nature. In speaking of the character and public services of Mr. Fox, he is not only severe, but illiberal and unjust. The life of that gentleman has certainly not passed without political errors; but his name is not to be mentioned with contempt. He has been uniformly hostile to the principle and conduct of this war, as a friend to the country to which he thought it would be ruinous; and for this the authors and supporters of the war may hold him in abhorrence; but they have no reason to despise him, nor can they express contempt in words that will for a moment gain credit.

The reform for which this author chiefly contends, is that of individuals; and we agree with him that it would supersede the

necessity of all other reform; but it would at the same time render government in a great measure unnecessary; neither oaths nor laws would be requisite, if every member of society would reform his principles and practices: at least the multiplication of penalties would be unnecessary; wars would cease, and we should need no barriers against political corruption. To promote this happy order of things, our author concludes his pamphlet with a prayer, to every part of which we cordially assent.

*Sound an Alarm: abridged.* 12mo. 3d. Wright. 1798.

In this abridgment, the most reprehensible part (the unqualified abuse of the opposition) is omitted; and the conduct of the French towards the Italian states affords the author a more successful occasion for *sounding an alarm*.

*Plain Truth, addressed to the Tars of Old England. Dedicated to Admiral Goodall, by one of themselves. Second Edition, with an Appendix.* 8vo. 1s. Longman. 1798.

This author exhibits to his brother-tars such a picture of French politics as may animate them against the enemy, and all who may support republican schemes in this country. Like other alarmists, he combines the opposition in parliament with a French party, without regard to truth or decency. In the conclusion, his words are, 'Check not, my fellow-seamen, that dreadful execution which accompanies your intrepidity and coolness—give full scope to your revenge, and *make no prisoners* to cherish rebellion and the flames of this most disastrous war.' This advice, borrowed from a decree of Robespierre, is sufficient to convince us that the writer of this pamphlet has assumed the name of a *British tar* in order to disgrace it.

*Matter of Fact for the Multitude. By a True Patriot.* 8vo. 6d. Wright. 1798.

Here we have another persuasion to union and energy against the invading foe, supported by a reference to the conduct of the French in every country where their arms or principles have prevailed, and to the supposed machinations of a party among ourselves, whose views are represented as hostile to our constitution in church and state. So much has lately been advanced on these topics by ministerial writers, that it would be fastidious to expect novelty of argument, and absurd to expect temperance of language. The conduct of the French, we believe, cannot meet with a serious vindicator; yet those who would impute to the leading members of the Whig Club a design of co-operation with them, are, not less than our open foes, enemies to the peace and union of the country. The calumny is most foul; and, if it should produce irritation, the propagators of it are answerable for all the consequences.

*A Letter most humbly and respectfully addressed to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, upon the present State of Ireland, &c. with Strictures upon Catholic Emancipation, &c. most earnestly supplicating his Royal Highness's serious Perusal and Interference upon the Subject.* 8vo. 2s. Cawthorn. 1798.

This dispassionate review of the history of Ireland from the commencement of the present reign, throws much light upon the origin of those parties and principles which have at various times prevailed in that country. While the writer, however, exposes without reserve the acts of unconstitutional policy which have been introduced, and the rise and progress of a system of gross corruption; and while he advises the court to place the trade of Ireland upon a reciprocity with Great-Britain, to do away *her trade of parliament*, and to give her the enjoyment of the constitution which she had in 1782; he is a decided enemy to any farther emancipation of the catholics; for which opinion he offers some reasons that are valid, and others that are not so.

Although this pamphlet was written when danger impended, we recommend the perusal of it to every person who wishes to discover the real origin of the rebellion, where only it can be found, in events that have long been very improperly consigned to oblivion. What has happened since the publication of it does not render it useless in this respect. Whatever set of men project the full pacification of Ireland, must study the genius of the people as it showed itself in the tumultuous assemblies from 1769 to 1774, and in the volunteer associations from 1778 to 1784. A wise physician will not boast of the efficacy of his medicines, until he has informed himself of the habits and constitution of his patient.

*The Speech of the Right Honourable John, Earl of Clare, Lord High Chancellor of Ireland, in the House of Lords of Ireland, on a Motion made by the Earl of Moira, Monday, Feb. 19, 1798, "That an humble Address be presented to his Excellency the Lord Lieutenant, to state, that as Parliament had confided to his Excellency extraordinary Powers in order to support the Laws and defeat traiterous Combinations in this Country, we feel it our Duty—as those Powers have not produced the desired Effect—to recommend the Adoption of such conciliatory Measures as may allay Apprehensions and Discontent."* By Authority. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Stockdale. 1798.

In this speech the lord chancellor considers the motion of the earl of Moira as unnecessary, and as founded on erroneous data; and he argues (unfortunately with too much success, as the events proved) for the existence of a conspiracy which could not be prevented by any lenient measures on the part of government. Subsequent occurrences have rendered this speech less interesting; but it may still be regarded as an able vindication of all the preceding measures of the Irish cabinet, and a full explanation of the system

of the court, although it precludes no person from tracing, in a more satisfactory manner, the remote causes of the rebellion, and inquiring whether lenity might not have been adopted at some early period, before the disaffected became desperate.

*Speech of R. Goodloe Harper, Esq. on the Foreign Interchange Bill; delivered in the House of Representatives of the United States, on Friday, March 2, 1798. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wright. 1798.*

The politics of America gradually acquire importance in our island. The dispute with France, and the existence of an English and a French party in America, are circumstances which render it necessary for us to be acquainted with the origin and state of public opinions in that country; and this, we presume, may be offered as an apology for the publication of a very long speech, with the immediate subject of which we have little concern.

Mr. Harper imputes, to certain persons in high station, an intention of sacrificing the independence of America to the ambition of the French directory; and, being convinced that such a conspiracy is in agitation, he exposes its treachery with much zeal and argument. In the study of American factions, this speech will be found useful; and we may add, that it is recommended by an easy flow of eloquence.

#### M E D I C I N E, &c.

*An Experimental Essay on the Manner in which Opium acts on the living Animal Body. By Alexander Philip Wilson, M. D. &c. &c. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Johnson.*

The experiments of physiologists have not, in general, led to satisfactory conclusions. Such as have been made with a view to the elucidation of the mode in which different substances operate on the living system, have been peculiarly liable to objection. The subject has therefore remained in a state of great uncertainty; and we are apprehensive that, notwithstanding the experimental torture practised by Mr. Wilson on frogs and other animals, there is still much room for doubt and conjecture.

Dissatisfied with the opinions which writers have formed of the action of opium on animals, Dr. Wilson has here presented the public with experiments which contradict former conclusions, and seem to afford a very simple account of the *modus operandi* of this drug. But, if his accuracy of deduction depends only on the frequent repetition of his experiments, we cannot fully rely upon it. They should not only have been very frequent, but should have been varied in different ways, instead of being confined to one or two classes of animals. They should also have been made under different circumstances, with regard to the excitability of the animals.

We cannot take notice of all the experiments; but we may state the general inferences that are drawn from them. From the first set, the author concludes, that opium applied to the heart is not capable of affecting any distant part through the medium of the nervous system; and from some others, that the diminished frequency of the motion of the heart, soon observed on throwing a solution of opium into the cavity of the abdomen, does not proceed from any action of the opium on this organ through the medium of the nervous system, but from the great interruption which it gives to the circulation in nearly one third of the whole animal. He also finds, that the effect of opium, when it acts on the nerves of the part to which it is applied, is merely that of inducing a general languor, which, if the quantity applied be considerable, terminates in death.

Of the effects of opium on the living body, he forms a three-fold division, comprehending, 1. its action on the nerves, not essentially different from any other topical irritation; 2. its effects on the heart and blood-vessels; such as increasing their action when it is applied in small quantities, and that of impairing, or altogether destroying, their power of action, when it is used more freely; 3. its effects when it is immediately applied to the brain itself.

*Dissertation on the Chemical and Medical Properties of the Bristol Hotwell Water. To which are added Practical Observations on the Prevention and Treatment of Pulmonary Consumption. By A. Carrick, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1797.*

The chemical analysis of the water in question is executed with judgment, so far as it goes; but, to have rendered it complete and satisfactory, the author should have carried his examinations farther, and repeated some of them more frequently.

Of the medicinal properties of this water, we are not enabled to form any conclusive opinion from the summary mode in which the subject is considered. We have not met with any observation in this part of the pamphlet, that has a greater claim to novelty than this—that the hot-wells afford the best winter retreat for consumptive and other invalids.

In the practical observations on the prevention and treatment of pulmonary consumption, we have not more novelty. The doctor beats the usual round, without starting a new opinion, or offering a new remedy to the consideration of the reader.

Of the use of aërial remedies, he says little; and his remarks upon them are not calculated to impress us with high expectations of their utility.

*Essays, Physiological and Philosophical, on the Distortion of the Spine, the Motive Power of Animals, the Fallacy of the Senses, and the Properties of Matter. By C. H. Wilkinson, Surgeon, &c. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Law. 1798.*

In the first essay, Mr. Wilkinson (for the use of the uninformed)

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I i



determines, by some pages of algebraical calculation, the centres of gravity and motion in the spine; and, having urged some objections to the bandages now employed to prevent or correct its deformities, he adopts this conclusion, that the support should be applied immediately under the centre of gravity of that part of the spine which is above the curvature. But how is this desideratum to be accomplished? The writer hopes, 'that hereafter he shall have an opportunity of giving representations of the different instruments that he may experience the most beneficial.' Perhaps it might have been better, had he postponed to that time the publication of this essay.

The second essay treats of the mechanism of animals; as adapting them for motion. M. St. Bel, the first professor of the Veterinary College, remarked, that if all the joints in the fore and hind leg of a well-formed horse were put to their utmost extent of motion, the feet would describe segments of circles, the diameters of which would be the same.

This observation seems to account for the coincidence of the feet in the same track, during the progression of a well-formed horse. Mr. Wilkinson doubts the truth of this remark, and denies it as far as it relates to Eclipse, whose joints he measured. Observations directed to this point cannot be well made upon the skeleton of a horse. The extent of motion which a joint appears to admit, being in a considerable degree restricted by its ligaments, it seems almost impossible to determine the extent of motion of the fore-leg of a horse, as the scapula is moveable, and as the least variation in the motion of the shoulder-joint must occasion a great difference in that of the foot. Perhaps no considerable advantage can be derived from inquiries of this nature, as the power and speed of horses must greatly depend on the strength and mobility of their muscles.

The third essay relates to the fallacy of the senses; and the fourth, to the properties of matter. These two essays appear to contain the opinions of different authors upon various subjects, which are strangely jumbled together; and we cannot distinguish in them any thing important, which properly belongs to their reputed author.

#### R E L I G I O N.

*An Apology for Brotherly Love, and for the Doctrines of the Church of England, in a Series of Letters to the Rev. Charles Daubeny, with a Vindication of such Parts of Mr. Wilberforce's Practical View, as have been objected to by Mr. Daubeny, in his late Publication, entitled A Guide to the Church. Also, some Remarks on Mr. Daubeny's Conduct in bringing a false Quotation from a Pamphlet, entitled Five Letters to the Rev. Mr. Fletcher, written by Sir Richard Hill, in the Year 1771. To which is annexed, a Sermon, by Bishop Babington. By Sir Richard Hill, Bart. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

Sir Richard Hill repeatedly assures us, that he is a member of

the church of England; but the inference which he draws from a comparison of the articles with some opinions of his adversary, is a dangerous weapon against himself.

‘I am lothe to say which of these two disputants may be in the right; therefore shall leave it to the reader to decide the controversy between them: it is certain, however, that one of them must be a maintainer of false doctrine. If the articles be erroneous, they ought not to be retained in the church; if Mr. Daubeny be the delinquent, is he not an impugner of the established religion, as set forth in the book of Common Prayer; and therefore, by the fifth canon, if ecclesiastical discipline were to be put into execution, liable to be *ipso facto* excommunicated, and not restored but by the archbishop, upon his repentance, and public revocation of his wicked errors?’ p. 97.

There are two things by which a person becomes member of a church—the belief of its doctrines, and a conformity to its discipline. On the doctrines of the church, there may be, and have been, differences of opinion among its members; some interpreting the articles in the rigid Calvinistic sense, the other according to the Arminian theories. Who is to decide between them? Not the writer of the present work, though he boldly undertakes to settle the dispute.—With regard to the other point, the discipline of the church, he is not the fairest of disputants. He who so freely censures the conduct of a great part of its clergy, who affects to have so strong a zeal for its interests, who admires its discipline and the form of its establishment, writes not with a view of showing its superiority over all other churches, but of exciting doubts respecting the authority of its officers. The Catholics, we know, attacked the church on the validity of its ordinations: the attack came from an enemy; but what should we have said if the defenders of its cause had joined in the cry with them, and amused themselves with all the tales of the Nag’s-head Tavern? Thus our writer cavils at some points in the life of archbishop Secker; and, in his eccentric career, he supports an argument, which no true son of the church would think himself bound to defend.

‘Besides the schismatical gaps, which have been opened in the episcopal fence, it is to be feared, that some few of the supreme heads of the church have not escaped contamination; as I believe we have had three monarchs on the British throne, who received baptism from the hands of Dissenters in Scotland, Holland, and Germany. Now, therefore, it might certainly afford much matter for discussion, how far these schismatical heads had a right to issue out their *congés d’elire*: and secondly, how far a dean and chapter had a right to elect a diocesan upon such a recommendation.’ p. 19.

Not content with this mode of proving his zeal for the church, he is full of his praises of men out of the establishment, who have

not been ordained, who preach in conventicles, and whose preachings he affects to attend with the greatest delight.

This pamphlet may amuse some readers; but it will not gratify the moderate and well-disposed.

*An Essay on the Character of the Apostles and Evangelists: designed to prove that they were not Enthusiasts; containing the Substance of several Discourses, delivered in the Chapel of Trinity-College, Dublin, by the Rev. Richard Graves, B. D. &c. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Dilly. 1798.*

To distinguish between enthusiasm and inspiration is the great object of this work. Infidels consider as enthusiasts those persons whom we believe to have been inspired by God; and they rank, under the same standard, the reveries of a Brothers, the fanaticism of a Mohammed, and the calm unassuming dignity of our Saviour. With such persons it is useless to argue. They cannot believe that God has ever made a revelation to mankind; and consequently they will not attend to the distinctions which we make between real inspiration and the mere pretence of it. But to Christians, as well as to those who believe in a false revelation, the question stands otherwise. We declare, that our faith is built on a rock that cannot be shaken; that our guides would not, and could not, deceive us. Hence it is necessary that we should lay down certain marks, to distinguish the enthusiast from the inspired person; and, subjecting the conduct of the heads of the different sects to these tests, we must determine, by a fair examination of their doctrines and actions, whether we ought to be guided by them in affairs of religion.

It is not difficult to ascertain the character of an enthusiast; for each sect makes the distinction with ease, when the character of his chief is not called in question. Thus the mad gestures of the Sibyl, the whirling dance of the dervise, the tortures of the Faquirs, are by all Christians justly ascribed to enthusiasm; but the disciples of Loyola and Bruno, the devotees of the cloisters, or the hermitage, will, from their own practice or the legends of their saints, be fearful of attributing to the real cause the effects of superstition.

The grounds which the apostles had for their belief, their mode of communicating it to others, their conduct, their morality, and their speculative doctrines, are examined by Mr. Graves with candour and judgment; and, upon the question of morality, he sums up the whole in a manner which appears to us unanswerable.

‘I have considered a few, and but a few, of those characters of Christian morality, in which it is most strongly and directly contrasted with enthusiasm. Let me now entreat my reader to reflect for a moment, who were the men who possessed this wisdom, and whence did they acquire it? Were they the philosophic sages of Greece and Rome? No. Were they politic and experienced

legislators and senators? No. Were they in the Jewish nation the wise and learned doctors of the law? No—a Jewish peasant, the reputed son of a carpenter, and who for thirty years had resided with a private and obscure family, calls together twelve tax-gatherers and fishermen; they become distracted with fanaticism, and the system we have examined, is formed of the ravings of these fanatics collected and preserved:—but there was among them one learned, educated man, St. Paul; he, perhaps it may be said, connected this admirable system of purity and brotherly love. We admit the learning and the talents of the apostle to the Gentiles; but let us not forget what we have already observed, that his natural temper was impetuous and warm, and that his education, added to his knowledge of heathen literature the doctrine and traditions of the Pharisees; he was educated in their habits of pride, and bigotry, and intolerance; while in his sober reason he was himself a bigot, and a persecutor even unto death: but he was suddenly hurried away, as the objector would suppose, by the frenzy of enthusiasm, and from that moment he became peaceable and gentle, merciful, liberal and tolerant. Gracious God! will men believe all this, and yet persevere to ridicule others for blind, irrational, implicit faith? No. Let us not judge hardly of those who differ from us; but if they judge unfairly of our cause, of the cause of Christianity and benevolence, let us not, as we value truth and piety, let us not yield lightly to their rash opinion. Surely if these characters belong to the morality of the gospel, and are compared with the natural disadvantages under which its teachers laboured, they plainly bespeak a divine original.’ P. 245.

As the work reflects credit on the abilities and piety of the writer, we recommend it with confidence to our readers.

*Sermons: chiefly upon Practical Subjects. By the Rev. Samuel Bishop, A. M. &c. Published by Thomas Clare, A. M. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1798.*

The poetical productions of this writer are well known; and, if his fame is not increased by this posthumous work, his numerous friends will be pleased with these specimens of merit in his profession. For the character of the sermons we will transcribe the account given of them by his intimate friend the editor; and we will not detract, by any fastidious remarks, from those praises which, while some may think them extravagant, may appear to others to be bestowed with commendable partiality.

‘The sermons, which are now published, it is hoped, will in no degree diminish his justly acquired reputation. They are plain and practical; they contain just and pious sentiments, expressed in a manly and forcible style; and they breathe the genuine spirit of candour and Christian charity. That they proceeded from settled conviction in their author of the truth of the gospel, I can assert from my own knowledge:—if they contribute to the establishment

of others in the faith of Christ,—to the increase of meekness and benevolence,—and to the advancement of religion and holiness,—the principal object of their publication will be accomplished.

The reader will probably notice in them a peculiar turn of thought; and, in some instances perhaps, a singular mode of expression. Mr. Bishop's conversation and writings were all marked by a certain character,—that character which distinguishes native genius! It is the charm and excellence of his poems,—how far it may appear pleasing or otherwise in his prose, the public will determine.—As a specimen of his manner, where he aimed at impressive conciseness, it may be agreeable to the reader to see the following lines, written in a copy of the book of Common Prayer presented by him to his daughter.

‘ MY DEAR MARY,

Consult, Your understanding for your belief;  
 Your belief for your conscience;  
 Your conscience for your duty;  
 Your duty for your devotion; and  
 Your devotion for your comfort:  
 So help you God,  
 The contents of this book,  
 And the daily prayers of  
 Your affectionate father,

SAMUEL BISHOP.’ P. xi.

*Calm's Great Dictionary of the Holy Bible: Historical, Critical, Geographical, and Etymological: wherein are explained all the proper Names in the Old and New Testament, &c. &c. With an entirely new Set of Plates, Explanatory, Illustrative, and Ornamental; under the Direction of C. Taylor. 4to. Parts F. II. III. 5s. each. Taylor. 1797.*

This is a very useful publication. The original is too well known to render any account of it necessary in this place; but it is proper to observe, that the alterations and improvements of it are executed with judgment and spirit. With regard to the embellishments, those plates which illustrate the customs of the east are more pleasingly ornamental than the allegorical representations of faith, mercy, and other attributes or qualities.

*Advice to a Student in the University, concerning the Qualifications and Duties of a Minister of the Gospel in the Church of England. By John Napleton, D. D. &c. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Rivingtons.*

The students of the university destined for holy orders, who read over this work with attention, and follow the rules prescribed in it, will find their advantage not only at the time of their examination by an episcopal chaplain, but in a course of judicious study for the remainder of their lives. The books recommended are in general well selected: but we were surprised at not finding in the

list the works of the bishops Law and Watson, and of archdeacon Paley; for, as the whole collection may be too expensive for most students, the theological tracts published by Dr. Watson might advantageously supply the deficiency. But this is a slight blemish in a production which evinces no small share of judgment and piety.

## P H I L O L O G Y.

*A Grammar of the French Tongue, wherein the Rules are particularly adapted to the Genius of the English Language. By the Abbé Henry, French Master at the Seminary in Ramsbury, Wilts. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Parsons.*

This writer does not profess to give a complete course of rules for learning the French Language: his aim is to confine himself to those points in which its syntax differs from the English modes of construction. This plan is calculated to diminish the labour of the student; and, for that reason, it is worthy of recommendation.

The substance of this work was *written* for the use of M. Henry's pupils; but, as he thought that it might also be useful to others, he resolved to *print* it. In executing this determination, however, he did not give himself sufficient time for correction. Upon this point he observes, that 'the fatigue and loss of time he heretofore sustained will, it is hoped, be deemed sufficient apologies' for the imperfections of the work. The fatigue to which he alludes was that of giving lessons to his pupils 'in his own handwriting.' But his eagerness to relieve himself from this fatigue ought to have given way to a prudent regard for his own reputation, and a due respect for the public.

He adopts the unnecessary distinction of the *partitive article*; but *du, de la, and des*, which he includes under this designation, are merely combinations of the preposition *de* with the definite article. He makes another superfluous distinction, when he speaks of the possessive pronouns. They 'are of two sorts (he says); the *absolute*, which are always followed by the substantive to which they relate; as, *my, thy, his, &c.* and the *relative*, which are followed by no substantive, but relate to one before mentioned; as, *mine, &c.*' Other idle remarks occasionally take place of more important intelligence: but, upon the whole, the work is not badly executed with regard to the rules of French idiom and construction, though the English style is despicable.

*Discours sur l'Article; composé pour l'Ecole des Messieurs Strahans à Ensfeld. Par M. l'Abbé de Lévizac.*

*A Discourse upon the Article; written for the Use of an Academy at Ensfeld. 8vo. 1s. Dulau. 1797.*

The abbé does not profess to throw any new light on the use of the article from his own sagacity of observation, but has merely

endeavoured to place in a strong point of view the opinions of the most celebrated French grammarians on this subject.

From the pompous exordium of this pamphlet, a person would suppose that it treated of an affair of extraordinary moment and of the most interesting consequence. Having mentioned the darkness which prevailed for ages—darkness so much the more difficult to be dispelled, because it was mistaken even for the light of truth—he proceeds to observe, that ‘at length reason, so long obscured by ignorance and prejudice, triumphed over all obstacles; it penetrated into every part; and its lively and brilliant rays were diffused over the literary world.’ Would any reader imagine, that this great effulgence and this signal triumph of reason referred to the mere elucidation of the nature of the French *article*?

Our author accuses Vaugelas, Chapelain, la-Mothe-le-Vayer, and T. Corneille, of having disseminated, with regard to this part of speech, ‘the most vague, obscure, and false notions.’ The opinions of the Port-Royal grammarians were less erroneous; but La-Touche, not content with the two species of articles which they admitted, extended the number to five; a distribution which, being adopted by many eminent persons, long prevailed. About the middle of this century, however, that system was exploded; and it was agreed among all philologists of reputation (says this writer) that *le* was the only article in the French language. *Un* seems also to claim that designation; but the abbé maintains, that it is an adjective, as, though it does not indicate the real quality of an object, it tends to ‘particularise, individualise, and modify’ it. It bears, indeed, some resemblance to an adjective, though it differs from the usual acceptation of that part of speech.

This essay is well written; and the modes of using *le* and its derivatives are properly illustrated by examples.

*A Dictionary of Quotations, in most frequent Use. Taken from the Greek, Latin, French, Spanish, and Italian Languages; translated into English. With Illustrations Historical and Idiomatic.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Robinsons. 1797.

This work, we think, will prove highly acceptable to unlearned readers, as it will remove many obstacles which perplex them in their course of reading. It not only contains quotations of a general nature, but also a variety of law phrases. Some of the articles are unnecessarily introduced; and, on the other hand, there are some omissions of what might have been useful. The incidental remarks are sometimes satirical, but generally just; and the translations, with some exceptions, are accurate.

It will be proper to give some specimens of the mode of explanation.

‘*Ars est celare artem.* Lat.—“The art is to conceal the art.”  
—In every practical science, as in painting or acting, for instance,

the greatest effort of the artist is to conceal from the spectator the means by which the effect is produced.'

'*Audentes fortuna juvat.* Lat. Virgil.—"Fortune assists the bold."—Intrepidity will generally ensure success.'

'*Boni pastoris est tondere pecus, non deglubere.* Lat. Suetonius.—"It is the part of a good shepherd to shear his flock but not to flea them."—This is a political maxim now grown out of use. The best minister at present is the man who can extort the most money, not he who imposes the least burdens on the people.'

'*Cui bono.* Lat.—"To what good" *sc.* will it tend? What is to be the advantage resulting from the measure which you propose?'

'*Guerre à mort.* Fr.—War 'till death.

'*Guerre à l'outrance.* Fr.—War to the uttermost.—Two phrases which it is to be hoped posterity will remember only as having disgraced the close of the 18th century.'

'*Vi et armis.* Lat.—"By force and arms."—By a force not sanctioned by law. By main force.'

'*Virtus laudatur et alget.* Lat. Juvenal.—"Virtue is praised and freezes."—Every virtuous effect is viewed with cold admiration, and met only with sullen neglect.'

From these extracts the reader may judge of the utility of this dictionary. The compiler merits the thanks of such as have learned little, and of those who have, in a great measure, forgotten the instructions of their youth.

## P O E T R Y.

*Select Epigrams, 2 Vols. 12mo. 9s. Boards. Lunn. 1797.*

What a host of labourers we have in the epigrammatic vineyard, and how scanty is the vintage! To compose a perfect epigram, a piece of *merum sal*, has been long acknowledged to be a work of great difficulty: but many good pieces of this kind have been produced. The collection which now lies under our critical animadversion, is not without its merit; and, to some of the epigrams, the world has given its applause.

The following, written by lord Nugent, are lively and pointed.

'I lov'd thee beautiful and kind,  
And plighted an eternal vow;  
So alter'd are thy face and mind,  
'Twere perjury to love thee now.' Vol. i. p. 119.



' Tom thought a wild profusion great,  
 And therefore spent his whole estate :  
 Will thinks the wealthy are ador'd,  
 And gleans what misers blush to hoard.  
 Their passion, merit, fate, the same,  
 They thirst and starve alike for fame.' Vol. i. p. 124.

The *jeu d'esprit* by Dr. Garth, on Gay's poems, deserves transcription.

' ON MR. GAY'S POEMS. BY SIR SAMUEL GARTH.

' When fame did o'er the spacious plains  
 The lays she once had learn'd repeat,  
 All listen'd to the tuneful strains,  
 And wonder'd who could sing so sweet.  
 'Twas thus :—the Graces held the lyre,  
 Th' harmonious frame the Muses strung,  
 The loves and smiles compos'd the choir,  
 And Gay transcrib'd what Phœbus sung.'

Vol. i. p. 11.

Speaking our real sentiments of the English and French epigrammatists, we announce the balance to be considerably in favour of the English. The French epigrams, in general, want simplicity; they are too laboured, too affected;—a fault which is indeed observable in most of their literary compositions; and what they are pleased to term a *rich rhyme*, insufferable in English versification, is considered as a striking beauty, and a fair substitute for wit and sentiment. Upon the whole, we recommend this little *bouquet*, as containing many flowers of an agreeable odour.

*Lorenzino di Medici, and other Poems.* 12mo. 3s. Cadell and Davies. 1797.

The coldness, the imbecillity, the *numeri lege soluti* of this poem, would discredit even the powers of a boarding-school miss; and, indeed, it seems more like a task performed during the holidays by one of the young ladies, than the work of an author who seems to think that he possesses the *as magna sonaturum*. A more spiritless composition we have seldom seen. A subject which should have called forth the *muse of fire*, has produced a garrulous and paralytic *old woman* to tell the tale! The author has subjoined some sonnets which are remarkably insipid, with an exception of one, which we shall select to prove our impartiality, and, at the same time, the truth of a satirical line of Dr. Young—

' Ev'n dullness sometimes blunders on vivacities.'

' Laura, full oft in childhood's early day  
 I led thee, playful, through the verdant mead;  
 Full oft for thee I tun'd my infant lay,  
 And twin'd the myrtle-garland for thy head.

In vain, my gentle girl, thy play-mates strove  
 With guileless art my youthful love to gain;  
 In vain for me the myrtle wreath they wove,  
 For me they tun'd the song of praise in vain.  
 And could'st thou think that friendship steel'd my breast,  
 And bade me careless hear each virgin sigh,  
 That robb'd my bosom of its wonted rest,  
 That gave a speaking lustre to my eye?  
 No, Laura, it was love—That love sincere,  
 Which owns thy influence in this silent tear.' p. 99.

Nevertheless, in justice to the severity of our censure, we deem ourselves obliged to give the last sonnet in the volume, which, for the honour of poetry, we hope will be *the last*.

' Deep glow'd the mountain top with golden day,  
 My Laura past me with indignant feet.  
 Swift I pursued, my mistress dear to greet,  
 Who chid in angry mood my long delay.  
 She had a right to chide. But well I knew  
 Her tranquil nature could not long refrain  
 From peace and joy. I led her to the plain,  
 The plain which glisten'd with the night-fall'n dew.  
 I from her slipper wip'd the damps away,  
 I spread her kerchief o'er yon rugged seat,  
 Placing my own beneath her gentle feet,  
 To screen them from the cold and chilling clay,  
 While she her white arm on my shoulder laid,  
 And with a grateful lip my care repaid.' p. 104.

*The Vision; a Poem on the Union of Russia and Prussia against Poland; with other Pieces, the Effusions of a Young Mind.*  
 8vo. 4s. Boards. Dilly. 1797.

In the preface to these poems, the author intimates, that they 'were written at an early period of life, that they were mostly the offspring of the moment, and that if they are defective in regularity of composition and harmony of numbers. he has only to say, that he did not conceive them to possess sufficient merit to justify him in neglecting pursuits of a higher and more important nature, for the flowery paths of poetical studies.'

The poems discover powers capable of improvement; but the person who deems any pursuit higher and more important than poetry, will, perhaps, never excel in this branch of literature. The subjects are not happily chosen; there is little novelty of imagery or idea; but the lines are as good as 'the effusions of a young mind' can be expected to be. We select the conclusion of the *Vision*.

' The prophet vanish'd :—when from pole to pole  
 On iron wheels the rautling thunders roll;

In mountain waves, the sea upheaving flood,  
 And lightnings glanc'd along the briny flood;  
 Now all the concave vault of heaven was light;  
 Now wrapt in thick impenetrable night:  
 The clash of arms was heard along the main,  
 And shrieks of ghosts which dragg'd the clanking chain;  
 A sudden trembling shook th' astonish'd earth,  
 And hell seem'd struggling for a second birth;  
 Then strong imagination 'gan pourtray  
 Shapes, which alone might horror's self dismay;  
 The ministers of life, from every part,  
 Retreated to their citadel, the heart:  
 Each hair, by terror stiffen'd, rose aghast,  
 Till from my swimming eyes creation pass'd;  
 Fainting, I sunk: nor thought again to rise,  
 Till the archangel's trump should rend the skies:  
 There long I lay—till dawn'd the blush of morn,  
 Again I seem'd to life and pleasure born:  
 Sweet was the breath of the refreshing breeze;  
 'Sweet the grey mists still brooding o'er the seas;  
 Bewilder'd memory all around forgot;  
 I rose, and musing, sought my rustick cot.' P. 20.

In a note to the Runic poem, the author confounds the Goths with the Celts; an error which, we hoped, had been completely exploded in this country.

*Poems, by the Rev. Gerald Fitz-Gerald, D. D. &c. Now first collected in one Volume, revised and improved by the Author. 8vo. 3s. 6s. Boards. Robinsons. 1797.*

This is merely a republication of poems in a more convenient and correct form.

#### D R A M A.

*The Stranger; or Misanthropy and Repentance: a Drama in Five Acts. Faithfully translated, entire, from the German of Augustus Von Kotzebue, Director of the Imperial Theatre at Vienna. By George Papendick, Sub-Librarian to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wingrave. 1798.*

*The Stranger: a Comedy; freely translated from Kotzebue's German Comedy of Misanthropy and Repentance. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly. 1798.*

The misanthropy of an injured husband, the wretchedness of a penitent wife, and their ultimate reconciliation, form the subject of this interesting play, so deservedly popular. In giving it this praise, however, we must observe that the comic part of it is truly despicable. Kotzebue is strangely unequal; it is astonishing that the author of *Benyowsky* \* could have stooped to such absurdity.

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\* See p. 157.

We extract part of the last scene from the former of these translations.

‘ *Eulalia.* [*In great emotion.*] Fully sensible that I had become unworthy of your name, I have these three years past assumed another, under which I could not be known. You must have a letter of divorce, which will enable you to chuse a worthier wife, in whose arms may God dispense his choicest blessings on you. To that end this paper [*Takes out a folded paper.*] will be necessary. It contains a written confession of my crimes. [*She gives it him with a trembling hand.*]

‘ *Meinau.* [*Takes and tears it.*] Be it for ever cancelled ! No, Eulalia, you alone have reigned within my heart, and—I am not ashamed to own it—you will reign there for ever. Your own sense of honour and virtue forbids you to take advantage of this weakness—But never could another wife be to me dear as Eulalia.

‘ *Eulalia.* [*Tremulous.*] Well then, it only now remains for me to take my leave.

‘ *Meinau.* Stay ; yet a moment stay. We have for some months lived very near together without knowing it. I have heard much good of you. You have a heart filled with sympathy for the misery of your poor fellow-creatures. I am glad of that. You must never want the means of obeying the dictates of such a heart ; and above all, you must never know want yourself. This paper secures you an income of five hundred a year, which my banker will pay at such periods as may be most convenient to yourself.

‘ *Eulalia.* Never. The labour of my hands shall maintain me. A morsel of bread moistened with a repentant tear will more secure my peace, than the consciousness that I am idly battenning on the fortune of a man, whose honour I have polluted, and whose happiness I have destroyed.

‘ *Meinau.* Madam, take it, I beseech you.

‘ *Eulalia.* I have deserved this humiliation. But to your generosity I appeal. Spare me this painful moment.

‘ *Meinau.* [*Aside.*] God, God ! of what a wife has that villain deprived me ! [*Puts the paper in his pocket*] Well, madam ! I respect your sentiments of delicacy, and withdraw my request ; but on this condition only, that if ever you should require assistance, I may be the first and only person to whom you shall apply : ay, frankly apply.

‘ *Eulalia.* I promise.

‘ *Meinau.* And now I may confidently entreat you to take back what is your own, your jewels. [*Tenders her a small case.*]

‘ *Eulalia.* [*Much moved, takes and opens it ; her tears fall on it.*] Ah, to my weeping eyes this case recalls the evening on which you presented me with this brilliant knot. It was that very evening when my father joined our hands together, and when with rapture I pronounced the vow of endless faith. That vow is broken. At

that time my heart was spotless as the new fallen snow. Alas! to that state no penitence can ever restore it. Of this necklace you made me a present on my birth-day five years ago. That was a happy day. You had arranged a small entertainment in the country; O how cheerful were we altogether! This pin I received at the birth of my William. How heavily weighs the recollection of past joys by our own hands destroyed!—No; this casket of jewels I cannot accept, unless you wish to put into my possession a perpetual reproach: [*Takes out only the pin, and then returns the box. Meinau, in as great emotion, but endeavouring to conceal it, takes the box with averted face, and puts it by.*] The pin only I take as a memento of my William's birth.

‘*Meinau.* No; I can withstand no longer. [*Turns toward her; his tone neither stern nor soft, neither firm nor tremulous, but fluctuating between all.*] Farewell!

‘*Eulalia.* O, but one moment longer! An answer to yet one question more, to ease a mother's heart! Are my children yet alive.

‘*Meinau.* They are.

‘*Eulalia.* And are they well.

‘*Meinau.* And well.

‘*Eulalia.* God, receive a mother's thanks! My William, I imagine, must be grown pretty tall.

‘*Meinau.* I believe he is.

‘*Eulalia.* And Emilia:—Is she still your favourite? [*Meinau, greatly agitated by this scene, is struggling between the emotions of honour and love.*] O noble-minded generous man! allow me once to see my children before we part, that I may press them to my bosom, give them my blessing, and kiss the features of their father in them. [*Meinau is silent.*] Ah, if you knew how, through these three dreary years, my heart has panted after my infants; how instantly my tears have burst from me whenever I saw a boy or girl of the same age with mine; how sometimes I have sat in darkness in my chamber, and solitarily indulged my mind with the magic pictures which fancy painted to my sight. Now on my lap sat William, now Emilia! Oh permit me to see them once, to take one last maternal embrace; and then we separate for ever.

‘*Meinau.* You shall, Eulalia, and this very evening. I expect them every moment. They were brought up at the little town just by here. I have sent my servant for them, who might have been back ere this time. I give you my word, that as soon as they come I will send them to you; and they may stay with you, if you please, till the dawn of day to-morrow: then I take them with me. [*A pause.—The Countess and her brother, who, at a small distance in the back ground have witnessed the whole scene, exchange some significant glances. The Major goes into the hut, and soon after comes out with John and the two children. He gives the boy to his sister, who places herself behind Eulalia, while he stands with the girl at the back of Meinau.*]

‘ *Eulalia*. Then we have no more to say to each other in this world. [*Collecting all her resolution.*] Farewell thou noble man! [*Takes his hand.*] Forget an unfortunate woman, who will never forget you. [*Kneels.*] Allow me once more to press this hand to my lips, this hand that once was mine.

‘ *Meinau*. [*Raising her.*] No humiliation, *Eulalia*. [*He shakes her hand.*] Farewell!

‘ *Eulalia*. For ever.

‘ *Meinau*. For ever!

‘ *Eulalia*. We part without animosity.

‘ *Meinau*. Certainly without animosity. •

‘ *Eulalia*. And when my sufferings shall have an end; when we shall meet again in another world —

‘ *Meinau*. There reigns no prejudice. Then you are mine again. [*Their hands are folded in each other's, their eyes meet, they hammer out once more a Farewell! and separate; but in going Eulalia turns on William, and Meinau on Emilia!*]

‘ *Emilia*. Father!

‘ *William*. Mother!

[*They press the children in their arms, in speechless rapture.*]

‘ *Emilia*. Dear Father!

‘ *William*. Dear Mother!

[*The father and mother quit the children, look on each other, open their arms, and embrace fervently.*]

‘ *Meinau*. I forgive you.

[*The Countess and the Major lift the children up, who cling to the necks of their parents, and cry, Dear Father! Dear Mother!*]  
[*The curtain drops.*] P. 93.

In the free translation we deem that alteration injudicious which makes the wife only elope. Guilt merely intentional would not have produced such self-loathing, nor would timely repentance have felt the bitterness of remorse. With the statement in the Preface relative to the conduct of the managers of Drury-Lane theatre, we have no concern.

## N O V E L S, &c.

*Clarentine, a Novel: in Three Volumes.* 12mo. 10s. 6d. sewed.  
Robinsons.

This novel is evidently from the Burney school; and it is said to have been written by a near relative of the successful author of *Cecilia* and *Camilla*. In its construction, a perfect regularity of plan is preserved; the events rise in a series, exhibiting the education, early virtues, taste and sensibility, and the more mature sentiments, independent spirit and chastened affection of *Caroline*. The dialogue is easy, often humorous, and pleasingly descriptive of modern manners and follies. The subordinate characters are rendered necessary to the story; and the attention of the reader is constantly

kept up by his being insensibly interested not only in the fate of the heroine, but of the other branches of the amiable family of Delmington. This work, in our opinion, is greatly superior to novels of the ordinary stamp; and it discovers talents from which much may be expected in this department of literature.

*Henry Willoughby. A Novel. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. sewed.*  
Kearsley. 1798.

In this novel there appears to be a mixture of truth and fiction; and, though its composition is irregular (for the story is left incomplete), so many probable adventures are related in it, and so many just remarks on life and manners are interspersed, that we cannot but recommend it as superior, in point of utility, to those productions of the kind, where the main purpose is the perplexity of courtship terminating in a fortunate union. The author has introduced some well known characters, delineated in Smollet's manner, and not without a considerable portion of his spirit and force.

*Hubert de Sevrac. A Romance, of the 18th Century. By Mary Robinson, Author of Poems, Angelina, &c. 3 Vols. 12mo. 12s. sewed.* Hookham. 1796.

The character of Mrs. Robinson's novels being generally known, it is perhaps sufficient to say, that Hubert de Sevrac is inferior to her former productions. It is an imitation of Mrs. Radcliffe's romances, but without any resemblance that may not be attained by a common pen. There are detached parts, however, of which we may speak with approbation; and, during the prevalence of the present taste for romances, the whole may afford amusement to the supporters of circulating libraries. But it may be necessary to apprise novel-writers, in general, that this taste is declining, and that real life and manners will soon assert their claims.

*The Midnight Bell, a German Story, founded on Incidents in real Life. 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. sewed.* Symonds. 1798.

As this novel has no prefatory address, we know not whether it is a translation from the German, or an original work; but we are inclined to think that the latter description is more applicable to it. The serious incidents are founded on the passion of jealousy; the concomitant circumstances of ghosts, murders, midnight bells, &c. are introduced with the usual mysterious apparatus; and the story will not be the less relished because not very probable. The authors of works on this plan seem not to care how absurd and contradictory the story may be in its progress, provided they can make all plain and evident at the conclusion; but, indeed, they do not always attend even to this point.

*Private History of Peregrine Proteus the Philosopher. By C. M. Wieland. Translated from the German. 2 Vols. 12mo. 7s. Boards.* Johnson.

The genius of Wieland is well known from his numerous writ-

ings. In this work he derides Christianity; but the attempt to depreciate it will not, we think, be successful, as he admits the beneficence of its precepts while he disbelieves its divine authority. Some of the love-scenes are drawn with so luxuriant a pencil, that it would be improper to recommend these volumes to the attention of the young. A few trite moral sentiments, exalted by the charms of language, are a poor compensation for the mischiefs that follow a direct incitement of the voluptuous passions.

*Days of Chivalry. A Romance. 2 Vols. 12mo. 6s. sewed.*  
Lane. 1797.

This production of a female pen, humbly termed by the author-ess an 'unoffending trifle,' contains a pleasing variety of incidents, not ill related or unhappily combined.

*Edgar: or the Phantom of the Castle. A Novel. In Two Vols.*  
By R. Sicklemore. 12mo. 7s. Lane. 1798.

Although we cannot assign a very high rank to this production, we do not think it contemptible; and it will afford some entertainment to the *amateurs* of horror. It was written for a benevolent and useful purpose; and its moral is, that the efforts of an honest mind, though poor and unprotected, will ultimately rise superior to the deep-laid machinations of vice, though armed with wealth and power.

#### MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

*The Refuge. By the Author of the Guide to Domestic Happiness.*  
*The Third Edition, enlarged. 12mo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Button.*  
1798.

This volume consists of a series of letters, addressed to a young lady who, after having enjoyed all the elegant and luxurious pleasures of fashionable life, discovered that her expectations of happiness were fallacious, and that many of her pursuits were not only trifling but criminal. At this time (we are informed) 'a conviction of guilt filled her breast with tumult; terrifying apprehensions agitated her soul: she beheld with astonishment the precipice on which she stood, the imminent danger with which she was surrounded—that there was but a step between her and everlasting ruin; and trembling on this precipice, she first uttered that inexpressibly important query—"What shall I do to be saved?" In answer to this inquiry, these letters were written; and the sale of the work induced the author to enlarge it. A strain of Calvinistic divinity pervades the epistles. Justification by free grace, independent of all good works, is enforced; and the blood of Jesus is pointed out as the only *refuge* for persons whose consciences, like that of the young lady, have been awakened from the sin of their ways.

The style of this work is superior to that of many productions of a similar tendency; some of the more elegant passages in Dr. Johnson's moral writings are happily introduced, though without acknowledgement; and the embellishments of paper and print, as well as the price, seem intended to introduce the *Refuge* to peni-



tents of a higher rank than the majority of Calvinists have attained. Whatever our sentiments may be, we honour the writer's zeal; and hope that his labours may be attended with success.

*A Letter to Sir John Scott, his Majesty's Attorney-General, on the Subject of a late Trial in Guildhall. By Gilbert Wakefield, B. A. &c. 8vo. 1s. Sold by the Author, at Hackney. 1798.*

We did not expect that Mr. Wakefield would suffer the prosecution of one of the publishers of his late pamphlet to pass without notice. Unawed by the frowns of power, he ventures to deliver his sentiments freely and openly on the subject of the trial, and on various points connected with it.

After what he calls an 'unsophisticated and uncourtly adjustment of preliminaries,' he animadverts on that part of the attorney-general's reply to Mr. Erskine, which, in a contemptuous strain, represented the poor as a necessary part in the general arrangement of the creator. He admits, that inequalities of condition are the dispensations of the deity; but contends, that the rich are by no means justified in neglecting and despising the poor, or in resigning them, with haughty apathy, to the infelicities of their lot. It is the duty of the former (he says) to make unceasing efforts for 'an essential melioration of mortality,' by a gradual improvement of the state of the poor; and an attention to this object is enforced by the example of our Saviour.

He accuses sir John Scott of 'a most infamous misrepresentation' of his meaning in a particular instance, or 'a stupidity most incorrigible.' The attorney-general cannot be suspected of the latter failing; and the other part of the alternative is too strongly expressed.

He condemns the partial and insidious management of the prosecution; and afterwards opposes the general permission, to the accuser, of the privilege of reply, as 'a palpable violation of all speculative justice;' but we do not entirely agree with him in this point, as it is the fault of the jury if the due effect of the defence should be weakened by the plausible eloquence of the reply.

With warmth and energy he asserts, and maintains in the fullest latitude, 'the privilege of discussing through the press every topic of human controversy;' and, having stated the motives which ought to operate against all attempts for the suppression of any literary productions, and the punishment of their authors (namely, the motives of prudence, philosophy, justice, humanity, and religion), he proceeds in the following strain:

'These are a summary of my reasons for a liberty of the press perfectly unrestrained, on all possible topics of investigation and debate. Through the benign influence of this liberty, and a vigorous cultivation of our intellect under a political system, at once generous, humane, and energetic, philosophy in all her branches would expand with genial fertility, taste and learning would thrive with full luxuriance, reason would reign triumphant, and revelation would speedily wave the cross on her victorious banners

through the extremities of the globe. A cubic inch of air can dilate itself through the prodigious sphere of Saturn's orbit. Man would approximate by illimitable advances to that perfection which the gospel exhorts him to attain. "The kingdoms of the world would become the kingdoms of our Lord and of his Christ." Pains and penalties; imprisonments and murders, the diabolical implements of corrupt unregenerated men! would be superseded by gentleness and philanthropy, persuasion, mutual forbearance, universal love. Tyranny, with all her listers, a foul and sanguinary train! would be confounded and consumed by the "brightness" of the divine presence; and their memorial blotted out for ever. "From the rising of the sun to the going down thereof, incense would be offered to the name of Jesus; and a pure offering."

"Phosphore! redde diem." p. 27.

The pamphlet concludes with the offer of some good advice to the attorney-general; but we cannot flatter Mr. Wakefield with the hope that Sir John will pay any regard to it.

*Military Instruction from the late King of Prussia to his Generals. (Illustrated with Plates.) To which is added (by the same Author) particular Instruction to the Officers of his Army, and especially those of the Cavalry. Translated from the French, by Lieut. Foster, 1st (or Royal) Dragoons. 8vo. 7s. 6d. Egerton.*

In these martial times, when persons of almost every description learn the use of arms, a work of this kind must be useful, though it concerns officers more than privates. The plates with which it is accompanied relate to the disposition of troops, their modes of advancing and retreating, &c.

The translator declares, that 'simplicity and perspicuity of language' were his chief objects in the execution of his task; and, in those points, he has not been unsuccessful.

One specimen of the work will suffice.

'The whole of an army should be placed in order of battle agreeably to the nature of ground which every particular part of it requires. The plain is chosen for the cavalry, but this is not all which regards them: for if the plain be only a thousand yards in front, and bounded by a wood in which we suppose the enemy to have thrown some infantry, under whose fire their cavalry can rally, it will then become necessary to change the disposition, and place them at the extremities of the wings of the infantry, that they may receive the benefit of their support.

'The whole of the cavalry is sometimes placed on one of the wings, or in the second line: at other times their wings are closed by one or two brigades of infantry.

'Eminences, church-yards, hollow ways, and wide ditches are the most advantageous situations for an army. If, in the disposition of our troops, we know how to take advantage of these circumstances, we never need to fear being attacked.

‘ If your cavalry be posted with a morass in its front, it is impossible that it can render you any service : and if it be placed too near a wood, the enemy may have troops there, who may throw them into disorder and pick them off with their muskets, whilst they are deprived of every possible means of defence. Your infantry will be exposed to the same inconveniencies if they are advanced too far on a plain with their flanks not secured, for the enemy will certainly take advantage of such error, and make their attack on that side where they are unprotected.

‘ The nature of the ground must invariably be our rule of direction. In a mountainous country I should place my cavalry in the second line, and never use them in the first line except they could act to advantage, unless it be a few squadrons to fall on the flank of the enemy’s infantry who may be advancing to attack me.

‘ It is a general rule in all well-disciplined armies, that a reserve of cavalry be formed if we are on a plain ; but where the country is chequered and intersected, this reserve is formed of infantry, with the addition of some hussars and dragoons.’ P. 32.

*A Letter to the Honourable Thomas Erskine, on the Prosecution of Thomas Williams for publishing the Age of Reason. By Thomas Paine, &c. 8vo. 6d. Paris. 1797.*

When a man, speaking of the Bible, makes use of these expressions, ‘ I can write a better book myself,’ we may safely vouch for his ignorance of its contents, and his self-sufficiency. Yet these words are in the epistle which is now before us ; and perhaps there may be some who will believe Thomas Paine upon his word.

The theological part of this letter is contemptible. Mr. Paine endeavours to prove, that the Bible is not the word of God ; and the two first chapters of Genesis are, in his opinion, sufficient for the purpose ; but he must be informed, that his argument is not new, and that many learned and sincere believers in the Bible consider those two chapters as not having been written by one and the same person. It is not necessary to true faith, that we should believe the book of Genesis to have been compiled by Moses ; and no Christian who reads that book, can have the least doubt, that, before the time of that legislator, the prophecies of Jacob were current among the Israelites.

Mr. Paine’s expectation of finding the Bible, if it be the word of God, a perfect specimen of good writing, will be deemed absurd by the generality of Christians ; and, if he had given himself the trouble of consulting Lowth, he would have found the man of taste discriminating the style of the several parts, and accounting for the diversity from the characters of the writers. The Bible contains the different revelations made by God to mankind ; but many of the histories included in it may not be the produce of divine inspiration.

The idle story, that the law was not known till the time of Josiah, is repeated in this pamphlet ; and we will not waste the time of our readers with a comment on so ridiculous a fagment. They

are, perhaps, not prepared for a sermon from our author; yet with one the publication concludes; and it was preached at a meeting of the Theophilanthropes, of which sect Paine is a member. The chief object of this discourse is, in the language of Pope,

‘ To look through nature up to nature’s God.’

With regard to the prosecution of the bookseller, we may say, that we condemn it, from our conviction of the truth and merits of the Bible, as strongly as Paine himself, who denies that truth and those merits. Upon this point, he observes, that

‘ the prosecution against Williams charges him with publishing a book, entitled the Age of Reason, which, it says, is an impious blasphemous pamphlet, tending to ridicule and bring into contempt the holy scriptures. Nothing is more easy than to find abusive words, and English prosecutions are famous for this species of vulgarity. The charge however is sophistical; for the charge as growing out of the pamphlet should have stated, not as it now states, to ridicule and bring into contempt the holy scriptures, but to shew, that the books called the holy scriptures are not the holy scriptures. It is one thing if I ridicule a work as being written by a certain person; but it is quite a different thing, if I write to prove that such work was not written by such person. In the first case, I attack the person through the work; in the other case, I defend the honor of the person against the work. This is what the Age of Reason does, and consequently the charge in the indictment is sophistically stated. Every one will admit, that if the Bible be not the word of God, we err in believing it to be his word, and ought not to believe it. Certainly, then, the ground the prosecution should take, would be to prove that the Bible is in fact what it is called. But this the prosecution has not done and cannot do.

‘ In all cases the prior fact must be proved, before the subsequent facts can be admitted in evidence. In a prosecution for adultery, the fact of marriage, which is the prior fact, must be proved before the facts to prove adultery can be received. If the fact of marriage cannot be proved, adultery cannot be proved; and if the prosecution cannot prove the Bible to be the word of God, the charge of blasphemy is visionary and groundless.’ P. 17.

To this the lawyer will answer, that it may be all true in point of reason, though not in law. If the law calls it blasphemy to ridicule any writing, and annexes a punishment to the crime, the jury must find the verdict upon the proper evidence; and it is not our business to enter into a dispute with lawyers. The verdict of a jury, however, can prove nothing as to the point in question; namely, whether the Bible deserves the confidence which we place in it. We therefore concede this point to Mr. Paine, that a judicial verdict of blasphemy cannot give credit to the Bible, any more than the decision of a cadi can sanction the Koran.

We cannot admit an inference which he draws, when he says,

'The prosecution, however, though it may injure the individual, may promote the cause of truth; because the manner in which it has been conducted appears a confession to the world, that there is no evidence to prove that the Bible is the word of God.' P. 18.

This prosecution does not prove the want of rational evidence for the Bible; but we allow it to be a very strong presumption, that the prosecutors had not the confidence in the Bible which it deserves; and we are sorry that any Christians should give so great an advantage against themselves to the adversary.

'If the Bible be' (says our author very properly) 'the word of God, it needs not the wretched aid of prosecutions to support it; and you might with as much propriety make a law to protect the sunshine as to protect the Bible, if the Bible, like the sun, be the work of God.' P. 21.

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'Leave the Bible to itself. God will take care of it if he has any thing to do with it, as he takes care of the sun and the moon, which need not your laws for their better protection.' P. 21.

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'Religion is a private affair between every man and his Maker, and no tribunal or third party has a right to interfere between them. It is not properly a thing of this world; it is only practised in this world; but its object is in a future world; and it is no otherwise an object of just laws than for the purpose of protecting the equal rights of all, however various their beliefs may be.' P. 20.

We conclude with intimating to this infidel writer, that the book, which has sustained with honour the investigation of the most learned men in the world, is not to be depreciated, because, upon improper grounds, the civil power has been called forth in its defence.

*Observations concerning the Diet of the common People, recommending a Method of Living less expensive, and more conducive to Health, than the present. By William Buchan, M. D. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, Edinburgh; and Author of the "Domestic Medicine."* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1797.

The intention of the author of 'Domestic Medicine,' in the present attempt, may be very good; but he has not advanced one new observation on the subject of oeconomy in feeding the poor. Whatever his notions, on the consumption and use of bread among the lower orders of society, may be, he proposes no cheaper or safer substitute, nor is it likely that a better or more wholesome substance can be found.

As for his plan of broths, soups, and other liquid foods, it has been proposed by many; but we cannot think it either a cheaper or more healthy mode. He surely knows that no satisfactory meal can be made without a considerable portion of solid matter, espe-

cially where great labour is sustained; which is generally the case with those who are to be benefited by the doctor's advice.

At the *dreadful* effects of the use of tea, he is much alarmed. It has long been fashionable among the faculty to decry this beverage; but the general experience of mankind does not prove it to be so *very* pernicious as it is here represented.

*An Historical Account of the Embassy to the Emperor of China, &c. Abridged principally from the Papers of Earl Macartney, as compiled by Sir George Staunton, &c. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Stockdale. 1797.*

This abridgment first appeared in numbers; and it involved the publisher in a contest with Mr. Nicol, who apprehended that it would injure the sale of the original work. Without deciding between these disputants, we shall only observe, that the *epitome* is sufficiently comprehensive for general readers; that it is better executed than several abstracts which we have seen of interesting voyages or travels; and that notes of additional information are annexed.

*A Supplement to complete and illustrate Mr. Nicol's Octavo Edition of Sir George Staunton's Account of the Embassy to China; consisting of Twenty-five Plates, &c. 8vo. 5s. Stockdale. 1797.*

The plates which form this supplement are the same with those which accompanied the above-mentioned abridgment; and some of them are superior to the *vignettes* from which they were copied.

*The Life of M. Zimmerman, Counsellor of State and chief Physician to the King of England at Hanover, &c. Translated from the French of S. A. D. Tissot, M. D. &c. Small 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1797.*

We have already noticed a translation of Tissot's pleasing sketch of the life of his ingenious and virtuous friend \*. On a survey of the present publication, we find that it is not a new transference of the original into our language, being borrowed (without acknowledgment) from that which we have mentioned with approbation.

*The Probable Progress and Issue of the Commotions which have agitated Europe since the French Revolution, argued from the Aspect of Things, and the Writings of the Prophets. By J. Bicheno. 8vo. 2s. Johnson. 1797.*

However few the number of Mr. Bicheno's converts may be, he persists with a laudable zeal in warning the nation against impending calamities, which can be averted only by reformation in church and state. His farther investigation of prophetic scripture seems to convince him, that his former position was right—that a war of thirty years from 1789 was ordained for the over-

throw of all political and ecclesiastical tyranny and corruption! In the present tract, he has displayed some portion of critical acumen; but his writings are less calculated for popular use than a reformer on his scale might wish.

*The Spirit of the Public Journals for 1797. Being an impartial Selection of the most exquisite Essays and Jeux d' Esprit, principally Prose, that appear in the Newspapers and other Publications. With explanatory Notes, and Anecdotes of many of the Persons alluded to. To be continued annually. 8vo. 5s. Richardson. 1798.*

The title of this work sufficiently indicates its contents. The selection appears to have been well made; and the volume will be found amusing, if not very interesting.

*Ordinances of Insurance and Average of the City of Hambro', published by Order of the Most Provident Senate, the 10th of September, 1731. Translated from the German, by Barnard van Sandau, Notary Public, &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray and Highley. 1797.*

This work is not an object of criticism; and its utility to merchants, brokers, under-writers, &c. in their transactions with Hamburg, must depend on the continuance of the ordinances.

*Genethliacal Astrology, comprehending an Enquiry into, and Defence of the Celestial Science; with the Method of rectifying Nativities, by the legal Mode of the Trutine of Hermes: comprising also a Variety of Genitures, investigated agreeably to the genuine System of Claudius Ptolemy; proving the Verity of elementary Influx, and sydercal Affection. By John Worsdale. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Symonds.*

Trash fit only for women who pretend to tell fortunes by the dregs of tea in a cup, or for ladies of fashion who run after the wise women belonging to our author's profession.

*An Alarm to the Public, and a Bounty promised to every Loyal Subject, who will come forward to repel the Enemy. Arms and Accoutrements provided for every Man, gratis. By J. Brown. 8vo. 6d. Longman. 1798.*

An absurd application of scriptural passages to military affairs.

### REPLY TO A CORRESPONDENT.

We have again been assailed by the Suffolk Frecholder, in his usual strain of virulence and falsehood. We lament that the poor man's head is so disordered as to be *tribus Anticyris insanabile*: but he is at full liberty to give vent to his malice. The censures lavished by such a man we consider as real compliments; for we should disdain the good opinion of so blind a votary of folly and prejudice, so incompetent a critic, and so contemptible a writer.

# A P P E N D I X

TO THE

TWENTY-THIRD VOLUME

OF THE

NEW ARRANGEMENT

OF THE

## CRITICAL REVIEW.

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### FOREIGN ARTICLES.

*Voyage de la Pérouse autour du Monde, publié conformément au Décret du 22 Avril 1791, et rédigé par M. L. A. Milet-Mureau, Général de Brigade dans le Corps du Génie, Directeur des Fortifications, Ex-constituant, Membre de plusieurs Sociétés littéraires de Paris.*

*A Voyage round the World, in the Years 1785, 1786, 1787, and 1788, by J. F. G. de la Pérouse; published conformably to a Decree of the Year 1791, and edited by M. L. A. Milet-Mureau. 4 Vols. 8vo. Imported by Dulau. 1798.*

IN the year 1788 \*, we gave an abstract of the course of the present voyage, so far as the accounts brought by M. Dufresne extended; accounts which proved almost the last. From the intelligence which afterwards arrived, it appeared that M. de la Pérouse and his companions had reached Kamtschatka in September, 1787, and that M. de Lesseps was then commissioned to convey the dispatches to Europe. In our review of that gentleman's narrative of his travels †, we predicted, from the long silence of the navigators, that they were no more—a prediction too fatally fulfilled.

As a general outline of the voyage may here be expected, we may observe, that the unfortunate adventurers sailed from

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\* See our LXVth Vol. p. 298. † See our second Vol. New Arr. p. 9.



Brest in August 1785, doubled Cape Horn, and arrived in Conception Bay on the coast of Chili; in February following. From that coast they stretched to the westward, and proceeded to Easter Isle, thence to the Sandwich Islands. From these, nearly in a northern course, they sailed to the coast of North America, and reached the latitude of  $59\frac{1}{2}$ , between Behring's Bay and Mount Elias. This was the extremity of their northern direction, as far as it has been ascertained. They then coasted downward to Nootka Sound, along New Albion to Monterey, a Spanish settlement, about lat.  $37^{\circ}$ , in the northern part of the coast of California. In this direction, therefore, they proceeded farther to the southward than some later navigators. From Monterey, they crossed the tropic of Cancer in a south-western direction, and then proceeded to Canton. From China they steered to the Philippines, thence to Korea through the sea of Japan, and to Tartary, as far north as  $51\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ . They afterwards passed along the coasts of the island Tchoka, and then sailed to Kamtschatka. From the bay of Avatcha, they had a long course on the Pacific Ocean, before they arrived at the islands of the Navigators. New Holland was at length visited by them; but their course from Botany-bay is unknown.

For a voyage which was to rival those of captain Cook, the preparations were conducted with no common care. The navigators were the most distinguished seamen of France; and the philosophers who accompanied them were the most able in their respective departments. Science was multifariously displayed in the instructions given to them, pointing out the objects of their attention; and their own genius was alive at every moment, to second the views of their government and their instructors. As if la Pérouse had foreseen his own fate, he carefully sent home, at every interval, descriptions of what he had seen, and accounts of the experiments and observations of his companions. Little therefore is lost, which we perhaps could have received on his return; and this reflection, though selfish and contracted, alone remains for our consolation.

Of the four octavo volumes, the first contains the introductory memoirs, the instructions of every kind, and extracts of some voyages undertaken by the Spaniards. The second and third contain the journal of the voyage; and the last, the detached memoirs, and letters from la Pérouse himself and the men of science who accompanied him. The plates form a folio volume, executed unequally, and finished with more spirit than elegance.

The preface of the editor, M. Milet-Mureau, is written with modesty and propriety. We shall only select that recommendation which he professes to have kept in view.

‘ Prompted by the same heart-felt interest which had, in the tribune of the constituent assembly, called forth my most zealous exertions to have the account of this voyage published for the benefit of the estimable relict of la Pérouse, I endeavoured to direct the choice of government to some nautical character, duly qualified to supply the place of one who had been originally nominated to the task of editing it. But France had already lost the greater part of her most distinguished naval officers; and those who still remained were either engaged in actual service, or had withdrawn into voluntary retirement. The minister, therefore, had no other choice left than that of a man who was at least versed in the study of natural history, and mathematics—an essential qualification for such an undertaking. The appointment of an editor who should preferably possess that kind of knowledge, was likewise consonant with the intentions of la Pérouse, who wrote to one of his friends nearly in these terms: “ If my journal be printed before my return, I particularly desire that the editorship may not be intrusted to a man of letters; for he will either consult the elegant turn of phrase at the expense of the appropriate term, which to his ear may sound harsh and barbarous,—the very term which the seaman and the man of science would prefer, but which they will then look for in vain;—or, setting wholly aside all the nautic and astronomic details, and only aiming at the composition of an interesting romance, he will, for want of that knowledge which his education has not allowed him to acquire, fall into errors that will prove fatal to those who may succeed me: but let an editor be chosen who is well acquainted with the mathematics, who shall be capable of calculating, of combining my data with those of other navigators, of rectifying any mistakes which may have escaped me, and who shall not himself commit any new ones. An editor of that stamp will scrupulously adhere to the ground-work that I have furnished, will suppress no essential particulars, will present the technical details in the rough and unpolished but concise style of a seaman; and he will have duly acquitted himself of his task, if he shall put himself precisely in my place, and publish the work in such form as I would myself have wished to impart to it.”

The preliminary discourse does not deserve high commendation. That part of it which respects universal meridians and the division of the circle, is trite and trifling. The life of la Pérouse is partial in some respects, vague and indiscriminate in others. We collect from it, that he was a man of considerable abilities, equally spirited and humane; attentive, circumspect, and disinterested. The decrees of the national assembly for fitting out ships to search for him, and for publish-

ing his journals, follow. The next article consists of the instructions given to him—instructions which, from different circumstances, he was unable to pursue in the order stated, but from which we may form an idea of the course that he must have followed after his departure from Botany Bay. After visiting the Friendly Isles, he was directed to run down the south-west coast of New Caledonia; to examine the isle of Santa Cruz of Mendana, and determine its extent to the south; or, if the wind would not allow that survey, to run along the coast of the Terre des Arfacides, on the south; to examine also an island to the north-west of that territory, and, if possible, the eastern coast of Louisiade. To this groupe of islands he probably steered; and perhaps in these he was lost. Islands inhabited by treacherous savages would afford no asylum to shipwrecked mariners; and the numerous reefs and shallows would make this navigation very insecure. From him we might have expected some valuable remarks; but fortunately these islands have been since examined with care. Lieutenant Shortland, in his return from Botany Bay, pursued this course, and observed with accuracy many islands of these seas: his journal was published at the end of governor Philip's voyage in 1789, noticed in our sixty-ninth volume.

From the instructions we shall make no extract, but content ourselves with remarking, that the annexed notes contain a valuable mass of geographical information, and the instructions to the men of science should be carefully perused by every voyager. They are calculated to direct the attention to objects of great importance, and to keep the mind alive to every passing circumstance, which idleness might neglect or ignorance overlook.

Of the journals of Spanish voyages, given in the first volume, it may not be improper to take notice of that which is the most important. Much of its merit, however, is lost by the errors of the French translation, or the strange obscurity of the Spanish original. It is to be regretted that M. Milet-Mureau is not better acquainted with marine tactics, and that Maurelle, the Spanish commander, was not more accurate in his observations.

Maurelle was sent from Manilla to the western coast of America, imperfectly provided for a voyage which was to extend across the Pacific, where supplies were at least transitory and precarious. His small stock being almost wholly consumed by the cock-roaches, he procured refreshments in one of the Friendly Islands, and also at Guam, the capital of the Marian or Ladrone Isles. The principal importance of this voyage, in a geographical view, is the course pursued to the north of the groupe, called by the names of Solomon's

Islands, Arfacides, &c. If our author is correct, all these islands are in southern latitude, none of them extending to the equator, though the northernmost reach within one or two degrees of it. He coasted these islands chiefly on the north, and added new ones to the former list. Lattè Island, or Mayorga, where he met with a very hospitable reception, had not before been visited; and, as the manners of the inhabitants differ from those of their neighbours, we shall relieve the dryness of these geographical disquisitions by some extracts.

'The Indians who came on board, pressed me to penetrate into the heart of their archipelago: each of them pointed to his own island, and assured me that I should there find water, and every thing of which I might stand in need. The *equis*, or captains, testified the greatest friendship for me as they severally arrived; and I endeavoured not to remain in arrear with them. Several of their number accepted the invitation to my table, but they ate only of the fruits which they had themselves brought on board. I imagined that these islanders were divided into a great number of casts or tribes, considering the number of *equis* who were seen to issue forth their commands: but, in other respects, I observed the most perfect harmony to prevail among all.

'Among our visitants were some of the female sex. Their countenances appeared to us by no means disagreeable: their dress consisted of a sort of petticoat which covered them from the waist down to the feet. The men were habited in the same manner. I admired the fine shape and size of the latter: some of them, whom I caused to be measured, were six feet four inches high, and stoutly made in proportion; nor were these the tallest among those Indians. Certain it is that the smallest of them were equal to the tallest and most athletic of my ship's company. These islanders in general are tall and robust.

'As soon as we had cast anchor, I received a present of fruits sent by the *tubou*; and the bearer of the present, according to the information given to me, was his son. What could be the meaning of the name *tubou*, which the *equis* repeated with singular affection? I imagined at the moment that it probably designated the *equi* of the island near which we were stationed, who must have enjoyed some pre-eminence above the other *equis*, since they spoke of him with such respect. Whoever he might be, I gave the best possible reception to his son, with a view of conciliating his friendship, that we might experience no impediment in our operations when preparing to provide a stock of water, and that he might, on the contrary, countenance and support us with all the influence of his authority.

At eight o'clock in the morning the frigate was surrounded by a hundred canoes: the cries of those who navigated the canoes, and there carried on their traffic, were so thrill, that it was impossible for us on board of the ship to hear each other's voices. At the same hour they informed us that the *tubou* was coming to pay us a visit. As soon as he approached, all the canoes that environed the frigate on the starboard side retired to make way for him. I received him with all possible civility. His age and enormous corpulency had deprived him of the agility requisite to enable him to climb on board; so that it became necessary for the *equis*, whom I had before considered as petty kings, to lift him up by the shoulders as he ascended the ship's ladder. He was accompanied by his wife, whose features surpassed in beauty those of all the other women whom we had hitherto seen in this island; and I would almost have sworn at that moment that she was the daughter of some European; so captivating were the graces which I observed in her person: as she was not above twenty-five years of age at most, her youth gave an additional lustre to her charms. They both seated themselves on the watch-bench; and all the others, lowly prostrating themselves, kissed the *tubou's* feet. As a present, he brought me a canoe full of sweet potatoes. In token of my gratitude, I arrayed him and his wife with sashes of flame-coloured silk descending from the neck to the waist, to which, with carnation ribands, I suspended two dollars bearing the impression of our august sovereign's features. At the same time I distributed a number of rials with the same impression, which should, in after-times, afford irrefragable proofs of our having touched at these islands.

So great was the subordination of the *equis* to the *tubou*, that not one of them ventured to sit in his presence: even his own son, who had, before his father's arrival, affected all the dignity of majesty, was now seen to behave with as profound respect as the others. I can assert with truth that the *tubou* hardly deigned to honour them with a word. I conducted them to the great cabin: they were transported with admiration on beholding the apparatus of the frigate, and the various objects which I showed to them. At length, perfectly satisfied with the good reception they had experienced from us, they departed, after having given us the most unequivocal assurances of the strictest friendship, and after a thousand kisses and embraces lavished on us by the good old man.

There is also some novelty in the account of their games.

Immediately there stepped forth from the ranks a robust athletic young man, pressing his left hand against his bosom, and striking his elbow with the right. He performed round

the circle a number of gambols opposite the groupes of those who were not of his own tribe. A champion from among the latter having presented himself, and making the same gestures, the two men began to wrestle, grappling each other by the body, and pushing each other backward and forward with such force, that their veins and sinews were seen to swell prodigiously. At length one of the two combatants fell to the ground with such violence, that I thought he would never more be able to rise. He rose, however, covered with dust, and retired without daring to turn his head aside. The victor advanced to pay his homage to the king; and those of his tribe chanted a song; but, whether in honour of the successful champion, or to the disgrace of his defeated antagonist, I cannot tell.

‘ These wrestling-matches lasted two hours; during which time one of the parties engaged had his arm fractured, and others received dreadful blows. While the wrestling continued, other champions presented themselves, who had their wrists and hands enveloped with thick cords, which served them as gauntlets. This kind of combat was much more terrible than the wrestling: at the very beginning of the assault, the combatants struck each other on the forehead, the temples, the cheeks,—in short, in every part of the face; and those who received these furious blows, became more ardent and impetuous in the conflict: I saw some of the number who were struck to the ground with the first blow. The spectators viewed these engagements with a certain degree of respect; nor was every one indiscriminately admitted to take a part in them.

‘ A number of women, especially those who attended on the queen, assisted at these games. On this occasion they appeared to me in a quite different light from that in which I had hitherto considered them. Before, I had not thought them disagreeable: but, on this day, they had decorated themselves with their choicest finery; having their cloaks neatly folded back, and fastened down with a knot on the left side; wearing strings of large glass beads about their neck; their hair being elegantly arranged, their bodies washed, and perfumed with an oil of tolerably pleasing scent, and their skins so scrupulously clean, that they could not have suffered the smallest particle of sand to adhere to it: in short, they fixed my whole attention, and appeared to me much more beautiful than I had before conceived them to be.

‘ The king commanded the women to engage in boxing as the men had done: they obeyed his orders, and maintained the conflict with such fierce animosity, that a single tooth would not have been left in the heads of these combatants, if they had not from time to time been separated. This sight affected me to the soul, and I requested the king to put an end to the combat:

he complied with my request ; and the assembled multitude loudly applauded the compassion which I had felt for those young women.'

A quotation relative to the cock-roaches may be added. These insects gnawed through the casks, so that the water almost at once disappeared ; and their devastations in the bread-rooms were dreadful.

' Thus circumstanced, and induced by the incessant complaints made to me, that the bread served out to the crew was not eatable, I determined to examine it myself. When I saw the condition in which it stood, I could not but consider myself as placed in the most direful situation to which the navigators of unknown seas can possibly be reduced, while at the same time I had not the smallest hope of relief. Never shall I recollect that afflicting moment, without feeling my soul harrowed up by the remembrance of the sight which then struck my eyes. With strict truth I can aver, that, if the Almighty had not supported me on that trying occasion, I should have fallen into the deepest despair, on seeing that there no longer existed even a probability of our being able to continue our voyage.

' I called in the first pilot, don Joseph Vasquez, the second pilot, don John d'Echeverria ; I assembled all the officers ; and I appointed the surgeon, don Pedro Carvajal, to take down the minutes of the council that we were about to hold, and of the deliberations which should take place. I severally conducted them to the bread-rooms : we there found millions of cock-roaches ; and, to form an adequate idea of the number of those insects, it would be necessary to have seen them with one's own eyes. Those destructive vermin had infested the frigate to such a degree, that the chaplain was several times obliged to pronounce exorcisms against them. On my part, I took the precaution of placing, in the cabins, the bread-rooms, and every part of the ship, vessels smeared on the inside with honey and sugar : each day a multitude of those insects were taken : I wasted on them almost the whole of my honey ; and yet no diminution of their number was at all perceivable.

' At the opening of the bread-room, the biscuit appeared to be untouched ; but near the partitions it had wholly vanished, and the bottom presented nought but a heap of bran and dust. Considering the defalcation of the men's allowance pursuant to the orders I had issued on the 16th of February, and the deduction of an ounce in the pound, which had taken place ever since our departure from Sifiran, I ought to have had three hundred and twenty-nine arrobes \* of bread remain-

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\* The *arrobo* weighs twenty-five pounds, of sixteen ounces each.'

ing, exclusive of the other provisions, which were in tolerable plenty; but on that day I saw myself reduced to two casks full of dust rather than of bread. I gave orders for opening the three large casks containing our reserved store, which were well bound with strong hoops, and carefully tarred over; but they did not exhibit the appearance of having ever contained a particle of bread, being filled with cock-roaches alone.'

We now proceed to the journal of la Pérouse. This able navigator begins with a short historical account of the different voyages undertaken for the purposes of discovery. We early meet with his principal failing; namely, too great confidence in his own opinions; but this confidence he never carried into action; for he yielded, occasionally perhaps with too much facility, to the sentiments of his officers. In speculative opinions, however, he is certainly too dogmatical. For instance, with regard to the luminous appearance of the sea, he observes, that it probably proceeds from the dissolution of marine bodies; for, if produced by insects, they 'would not be diffused so lavishly from the pole to the equator, but would be chiefly conspicuous in particular climates.' The argument, weak in itself, is contradicted by decisive observation; for the insects have been seen and described by various naturalists, and even the slime, which is sometimes phosphoric, derives its light from the mixture of minute insects, or from the decomposition of the phosphoric ones.

Having left the harbour of Brest in the beginning of August, 1785, the voyagers, in the *Boussole* and the *Astrolabe*, sailed to Madeira and Teneriffe. The Pic of the latter island was examined; but we regret, that M. Monneron's series of levels for ascertaining its height did not reach Europe. They were indeed incomplete; but the editor remarks, that he probably had distinguished the end of his observations in such a way, that any other traveller might have continued them.

After crossing the Atlantic, la Pérouse arrived at Trinidad, in which is a small Portuguese fort. The English had some pretensions to this island, but resigned them at the request of the Portuguese government. Having sought the island of Ascension, he asserts that it does not exist within  $7^{\circ}$  west longitude from the meridian of Trinidad, between the latitudes of  $20^{\circ} 10'$  and  $20^{\circ} 50'$ . He thinks that seamen have supposed themselves at Ascension, when they really were at Trinidad; and too positively hints that, as he did not see the island, it does not exist. The editor, in a note, reprehends his too positive decision, and his hasty discontinuance of the search. The



best English geographers have doubted the existence of the island in question; and Don Francisco de Barros, governor of St. Catharine, affirmed that it did not exist, having dispatched a vessel to examine all the coast in which it was said to have been found. We agree, however, with M. Milet-Mureau, that it is very improper to expunge it from the map; and, in this censure, the English geographers must be involved.

L'Isle Grande is another disputed island. We shall transcribe what la Pérouse has said of it.

‘The weather continued extremely fine till the 28th [of November, 1785], when we experienced a very violent gale from the eastward, the first to which we were exposed since our departure from France. On this occasion, I had considerable pleasure in observing, that, although our ships were very indifferent sailers, they stood the bad weather remarkably well, and were capable of resisting the rough seas which we should have to traverse. We were at this time in  $35^{\circ} 24'$  south lat. and long.  $43^{\circ} 40'$  west; and I was steering my course to the east south-east, because I purposed, in my search for Isle Grande, to strike into its latitude at about ten degrees eastward of the position assigned to it in the different charts. I did not shut my eyes to the extreme difficulty I should have to encounter in getting back again: but in any case I was under a necessity of proceeding far to the westward, in order to reach the straits of Le Maire; and whatever way I might make in that direction while running down the meridian of Isle Grande, I should be so much the nearer to the coast of Patagonia, where I was obliged to take soundings previous to my doubling of Cape Horn. I also thought, that, as the latitude of Isle Grande had not been accurately ascertained, it was more probable that I should fall in with it by steering upon different tacks between the 44th and 45th degrees of latitude, than by pursuing a straight line in  $44^{\circ} 30'$ , as I might have done in running from west to east; the westerly winds being as constant in these seas, as those from the east are between the tropics.

‘It will soon appear that I derived no advantage from my calculations, and that, after an unavailing search of forty days, during which I experienced five gales of wind, I was constrained to proceed to my ulterior destination.

‘On the 7th of December, I was in the supposed parallel of Isle Grande, in latitude  $44^{\circ} 38'$  south, and longitude  $34^{\circ}$  west, according to a lunar observation taken on the preceding day. Pieces of sea-weed passed us on our way; and we had for several days been surrounded by birds; but they were of the species of the albatrosses and petrels, which never approach the land except in the breeding season.

These slight indications of land were, however, sufficient to keep alive our hopes, and afforded us some consolation in the tremendous seas which we were traversing. But I was not free from anxiety when I considered that I had still to proceed 35 degrees westward, to reach the strait of Le Maire, where it was of considerable importance that I should arrive before the end of January.

I continued steering upon different tacks between 44 and 45° of latitude, till the 24th of December: in that parallel I traversed fifteen degrees of longitude; and, on the 27th of December, I relinquished the search, fully convinced that the island mentioned by La Roche was not in existence, and that the appearance of sea-weed and petrels is no proof of the vicinity of land, since I discovered sea-plants and birds till my arrival on the coast of Patagonia. The chart on which the ship's place each day is marked down, will afford a better idea of the course I steered, than the details I have here given. I am convinced that the navigators who may undertake this search after me, will not be more successful than I have been; but they ought not to engage in it unless they are shaping their course to the eastward, towards the Indian ocean. In such case, it is neither a more difficult nor a more tedious task to make a run of 30 degrees upon that parallel than upon any other; and if they do not discover the land, at least they will have pursued a route still approximating to their destination. Indeed I am firmly persuaded that *Isle Grande* is, like *Pepys' Island*, a country that exists only in idea. The account given by La Roche, who pretends that he saw tall trees growing in it, is void of all probability; for it is beyond a doubt, that, in the latitude of 45 degrees, shrubs alone are to be found in an island situate in the midst of the southern ocean; since not a single tree of considerable size is to be met with in the islands of *Tristan d'Acuna*, which lie in a latitude infinitely more favourable to vegetation.

It is observed in a note, that the only fair conclusion is that *l'Isle Grande* does not exist in the position attributed to it by former geographers. Captain Cook, in his chart, seems to confound it with *Pepys' Island*; and Mr. Dalrymple is the only geographer of credit who has retained it. We do not find that this whole track has been explored by any navigator; and, therefore, the existence of the island is still problematical.

La Pérouse passed through the strait of Le Maire, and doubled Cape Horn with such vigilant attention, that he trusted to the accuracy of his observation as firmly, as to the position of the observatories of Greenwich or Paris. The land,

discovered by Drake, seems, according to the French navigator, to be Terra del Fuego.

On the 24th of February, 1786, the voyagers anchored in Conception Bay; and having, from their first arrival on the coast of Chili, taken lunar observations every day, they were able to confirm the accuracy of Juan, the companion of Ulloa. Conception is a Spanish settlement on the western coast of South-America: it has a safe and most commodious harbour. The soil is extremely fruitful; and the people might be happy, were it not for the impolitic exactions of the government, and the great number of monastic establishments. Idleness, rather than superstition, is the parent of these institutions; but, where provisions are easily supplied, it is scarcely necessary to fly to a cloister, with a view of avoiding labour.

Of the dress of the females of this province we have the following sketch.

‘A plaited petticoat, which leaves half of the leg exposed to view, and which is fastened far below the waist; stockings striped with red, blue, and white; shoes so short, that all the toes are doubled back, and the foot appears nearly round, are worn by the ladies of Chili. Their hair is unpowdered; and that which grows on the back part of the head is divided into small braids which hang down on their shoulders. Their corset is of gold or Silver tissue, and is covered by two shawls, one of muslin, the other (which is placed over that) of woollen stuff of various colours, yellow, blue, or pink. With these woollen shawls the ladies cover their heads when they are in the streets, or when the weather is cold: but, within doors, they are accustomed to lay them on their lap; and there is a mode of toying with the muslin shawl, by incessantly placing and replacing it, in which the ladies of La Conception display a very graceful dexterity. They are in general handsome, and possessed of such amiable politeness, that there is certainly no maritime city in Europe, where foreign navigators could hope to be entertained with so much affection and amenity.’

The next resting-place was Easter Island. Davis's Land was not discovered, and perhaps does not exist; but there are islands in 27° south latitude, at the distance of 200 leagues from Copiapo, which are really those of St. Felix and St. Ambrose, erroneously placed in all the charts. These have probably been mistaken for Davis's Land.

*(To be continued.)*

*Fragmens sur Paris, par Frederic Jean Laurent Meyer, Docteur en Droit à Hambourg. Traduits de l'Allemand, par le General Dumouriez. Hamburg. 1798.*

*Fragments upon Paris, by Dr. Meyer; translated from the German by General Dumouriez. 2 Vols.*

'I Wish' (says Dumouriez in his Preface) 'that I could transmit, to those who will read these Fragments in the translation, the feelings which the original has excited in me. A wanderer, and proscribed from a country which owes to me her first military successes and the foundation of her liberty, I seek to find her, not in the errors, the misfortunes, or the crimes of those who have governed her, but in the consoling picture of the wise and the true philosophers by whom she is honoured.'

Consoling indeed is the picture which Dr. Meyer has presented—a great nation recovering from the convulsions that have only served to augment its power, and its governors rendering themselves as illustrious at home by their encouragement of the sciences, as they have made themselves formidable abroad by the success of their arms.

When Dr. Meyer entered Paris, in the spring of the year 1796, he found that city in a state of great tranquillity, notwithstanding the reports of commotion propagated by the enemies of the republic. He soon commenced his survey, and prepared materials for the work which we are now examining.

Among the contents of the first volume, we meet with a multiplicity of articles, irregularly arranged. Under the head of 'streets,' we are pleased to find, that the accidents which were so frequent under the old *régime*, when such a number of passengers were killed or maimed by the carelessness or wantonness of the drivers of carriages, no longer occur. Carriages, indeed, are not so numerous in Paris as they were before the revolution; but the chief reason of the favourable change is, that the present owners of equipages are more considerate.—The next article relates to the Pont-Neuf; and superficial accounts of the palace of the late duke of Orleans, of that of the Thuilleries, of several squares and other public places, follow.—Of the theatres the author treats more copiously. While he was at Paris, fifteen houses of that denomination were open, and were generally thronged. He observed, in his visits to these places of amusement, that 'an irreconcilable hatred of the system of terror and of all arbitrary power, respect for the memory of the unfortunate victims of anarchy, an attachment to moderate principles and to lenient

measures, forgiveness and tolerance towards the better class of emigrants, affection for the defenders of the country, and an ardent desire of a speedy and general peace, were the prevailing sentiments of the nation,' as developed in the words and behaviour of the spectators, or in their manner of receiving and applying particular passages of the drama.

Dr. Meyer speaks contemptuously of the civic festivals of the Parisians; and he thinks that they have not that effect on the minds of the people which the institutors would wish to impress.

Passing to the subject of legislative proceedings, he applauds the order and moderation with which the debates are usually conducted, particularly in the council of elders. He has given the sketches of some debates which he witnessed in the council of five hundred; but these were exceptions from the general remark, as they were attended with great clamour and tumult. He particularly admired, on these occasions, the oratory of Thibaudeau, to whose merit in other respects he also bears testimony.

He has communicated some biographical and characteristic anecdotes of the members of the executive directory. The pentarchs who then ruled France were Rewbell, Le-Tourneur, Carnot, La-Reveillère-Lépaux, and Barras.

'Before the revolution' (says Dr. Meyer) 'Rewbell was an advocate of the supreme court of Colmar. He acquired reputation by his eloquence, his attention to business, his love of justice, and his disregard of selfish interests. As a member of the constituent assembly, as a deputy at Mentz during the siege, and in other employments, he did not forfeit, among candid observers of his conduct, the good opinion which he had thus gained. While the legislative assembly sat, he performed considerable service in his department; and, when he was a member of the convention, he defended his country against the desolating fury of anarchists. After the fall of Robespierre, he was one of the first who attacked the faction of the Jacobins; and he was the first who voted for the suppression of their clubs.—In his exercise of the directorial office, he is distinguished by a tenacious firmness in his opinions, when he has deliberately weighed them in his mind. This firmness, however, does not degenerate into blind obstinacy; for he will give way to a change of circumstances, and take the advice of those whom he esteems.—As a private man, he manifests a love of order, moderation, fidelity in friendship, and all the virtues of the father of a family.'

A favourable character is given, by the German writer, of Le-Tourneur, the negotiator at Lisle; but the French translator, in a note, speaks less respectfully of him.

After a panegyric upon Carnot, La-Reveillère-Lépaux is thus extolled.

'By the general voice, not merely of impartial persons, but even of those who are the most inimical to the existing government, he is honoured with the distinctive appellation of the virtuous man. France, it is said, has paid due homage to the purest civism, by conferring on La-Reveillère the highest dignity in the state. The public opinion fully acknowledges his merit as a statesman, a philosopher, and a private man. He has never belonged to any party; he loves peace; he values merit in all classes and in every country; and, with energetic frankness, he gives his sanction to every thing that is good and great.'

This *éloge* is the effusion of partiality, rather than of truth.

Barras is represented as a man of vivacity and courage, and as more attached to pleasure than to business. He was one of the defenders of the convention against the partisans of Robespierre; and he also assisted in quelling a renewed insurrection of the Parisians; but, in the latter of these commotions, he rendered himself obnoxious to a considerable part of the community by proceeding too far in the sanguinary intoxication of success.

We afterwards meet with an interesting account of Sieyes, who appears to have been equally misrepresented as a man and as a politician. We were amused with an anecdote respecting him, which we will lay before our readers.

'I can warrant' (says Dr. Meyer) 'the truth of the following statement, which I received from a friend most deserving of credit, who was present when the affair happened.

'Robespierre, whose hawk eye glanced death upon every one that incurred the slightest suspicion of being able to thwart his ambitious schemes, contented himself with carefully watching Sieyes. The latter, to avoid the iron arm of the tyrant, under which every thing bowed, withdrew himself from all concern in public affairs, and observed a rigorous silence. The tyrant made use of all the means in his power to discover traces of what Sieyes might have written; he had recourse to the opening of letters, that invention of the school of the Jesuits\*, so commodiously employed by despotism under the pretext of *reasons of state*, to explore the secrets of individuals—an arbitrary measure in which Robespierre had many predecessors, and finds many imitators. All letters addressed to the suspected mal-content were opened by order of the dicta-

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\* This dishonourable practice occasionally prevailed long before the time of the Jesuits. REV.

tor. Sieyes, in conversation with a German friend, had expressed a wish to have some insight into Kant's new system of philosophy. This friend had written to his brother, a man of letters in one of the German universities, who, as he could express philosophical ideas with more facility in Latin than in French, traced, in the former language, a sketch of the principles of Kant's system, and directed it in a letter to Sieyes. The epistle reached Paris, and was opened at the bureau of the police. "A Latin letter, consisting of several sheets, to Sieyes—and from an enemy's country! secrets are concealed in it—perhaps even the plan of a conspiracy." Thus thought the penetrating diplomacy; and the important letter passed to the revolutionary committee. This council of high wisdom examined it, comprehended nothing, and despised the language of pedants. They summoned the most able school-masters, who repeatedly read, and disputed for a long time upon the contents of this singular epistle. The words they could easily translate; but they could not comprehend the meaning. One of the company cried out, "These characters deceive us; I here perceive the cipher of a dangerous secret." At last, in the minority of this Areopagus, one sage was found who was able to translate some passages intelligibly; and the great secret was discovered. It was proved that the letter contained no counter-revolutionary plan, but that the philosophical language was new, the meaning little comprehensible, and the matter very obscure.'

The second volume begins with an account of the National Institute of Arts and Sciences; but, as we have already given a sketch of that institution\*, we shall not dwell upon this part of the work. The transactions of several of the meetings of this body are mentioned; but we shall only extract a passage which exhibits in a favourable light the sensibility of those who were present.

'When I entered the hall' (says our author) I found the spectators, numerous as they were, in a general enthusiasm: a tumult of voices and cries prevailed; and many of the men, as well as the women, shed tears. Prony was then reciting an *éloge* in honour of the astronomer Pingré; and his subject gave him occasion to speak of the services which his friend Bailly had rendered to the science of astronomy. The name of that respectable old man was no sooner pronounced, than an effervescence of indignation and resentment at his inhuman murder spread through the assembly; and the speaker was obliged, for some time, to give way to the general spirit.

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\* See our XVIth Volume, New Arr. p. 555.

After a long discontinuance of his discourse, he, in a strain of dignity mingled with emotion, made an apostrophe to the ensanguined *manes* of Bailly, offering the homage of the gratitude and veneration of his contemporaries, by whom his fate was deeply lamented. With the emotions of the orator, which frequently interrupted his speech, the feelings of all his auditors were in unison. In the silence which succeeded the agitations of enthusiasm—a silence indicative of the most refined sensibility—the shade of that great man, appeased by this funeral respect, seemed to be hovering over the assembly, and inspiring the scene. This mute expression was the most eloquent homage that could be offered to the merit of a man, whose name is inscribed in the annals of science, and enrolled among the most illustrious names in the records of the present age.

The Museum of Natural History is said to have been chiefly projected by the *ci-devant* comte de la Cépède, a man of talent and science. The establishment is well conducted; and the lectures are numerously attended.

The Garden of Plants is the favourite resort of the peaceable and respectable citizens: it affords the evening walk with which they indulge their children. Our readers, we doubt not, will be pleased with the following inscription, placed in different parts of this garden to prevent disorder.

‘ Citizens, respect this property ;

1. Because it tends to the good of humanity and to the advancement of useful science, and because its productions serve to relieve our sick and indigent brethren ;

2. Because it is national property ; in which quality it belongs to all, and to no one in particular.

‘ Citizens, in preserving this important property, you benefit yourselves. You are therefore requested to be watchful one over the other, in preventing any mischief or devastation from being committed in your presence.’

The writer adds,

‘ The effect of such an inscription, or even of a simple riband with the words “ you can not pass here,” is more powerful over the people of Paris than the large grates armed with iron points at the entrance of the parks and gardens of the princes and nobles in Germany, or the posts covered with inscriptions, denouncing capital punishment against all who, by touching any thing, offer disrespect to the majesty of the place.’

The doctor's remark upon the central schools is perfectly just.



'The ancient languages, history, natural history, mathematics, natural philology, and chemistry, the study of the French language, the sciences, the fine arts, and legislation, are the objects of instruction. In this list I sought in vain for a professor of morals, or for lessons to form the pupils to the civic and domestic virtues. Why has this most important part of education been forgotten, rejected, excluded? Why has it not been considered that the man exists before the philosopher, that the good citizen and the father of a family are the most powerful support of the state?'

After the mention of various works of art, we have an account of David, the celebrated painter, unfortunately notorious as the partisan of Robespierre. Bad actions, however, do not always spring from bad motives; the persecuting fanaticism of the terrorist, or of the monk, does not necessarily imply depravity of heart. The errors of David were great; but he does not appear to have been a selfish or wicked man. The influence which he possessed during that disgraceful period of the revolution, was never exerted to enrich or aggrandise himself; and he either refused the rewards that were decreed to him for his plans and national paintings, or accepted the money that he might distribute it among indigent artists. Dr. Meyer found him an insulated man, devoted to his professional pursuits, generally silent upon politics, but still tenacious of those principles to which he had sacrificed the feelings of humanity and the good opinion of his countrymen.

Sublimity of imagination, fertility of invention, a noble simplicity of composition, truth of expression, accuracy of design, beauty of figure, warmth and harmony of colouring, are considered by our author as united in the finished pieces of David. The subject of his *Junius Brutus* is wonderfully conceived. At the vestibule of his house, the stern patriot is seated on the pedestal of the statue of *Dea Roma*, the protecting divinity of his country, before whom he had sworn to act as the judge, not as the father. His wife and daughters are coming forth to learn the fate of his sons; and they see the lictors at the gate bearing the bloody corpse of one of them upon a bier. A more interesting moment could not have been imagined; and the execution is said to equal the design.

David was then employed upon that battle between the Romans and Sabines, to which the Roman matrons put an end by reconciling the two armies. 'In this picture,' said he to his German visitant, 'I would have history speak to my country, that she may cease to sacrifice her children to horrible war.' Of his pictures of the deaths of Pelletier and Marat, the artist is now ashamed: 'Go,' said he, when Dr. Meyer desired to see them, 'go rather and look at my Horatii and

my Brutus; I composed them with more leisure in times more tranquil.'

Of the state of manufactures in France, at the time of his visit, Dr. Meyer speaks very unfavourably.

'The manufactures in France may be compared to the ruins of a magnificent building, which has sunk from the failure of the foundation. In the interior parts of the country, and in towns formerly the most flourishing, we perceive the effects of revolutionary convulsion, and the consequences of the most rancorous and furious hostilities that ever desolated France. In almost every district, the manufactures have been so far overwhelmed, that the hopes of re-establishing them are almost extinct. Hands and materials are deficient. Ingenious and active individuals, indeed, make occasional attempts; but their undertakings, though patronised by the government, and encouraged by public bodies, languish under a variety of wants.'

He concurs, however, with those writers who have exhibited a pleasing picture of the success of the agricultural efforts of the French. He affirms, that the country was never better cultivated; and he adds, 'The labourers, the most numerous and useful class of people in France, never were more happy than they are at present. They live at their ease, enjoy freedom, and are content. Is it then an idle phantasy to regard this respectable class of citizens as the support of the existing constitution, and to be of opinion that France will be indebted to them for her most brilliant prosperity? These cultivators will never again suffer themselves to be oppressed by the feudal yoke; but will in time accustom themselves to a sacrifice of the superfluity of their considerable profits, to support the country by moderate imposts, which have hitherto been very badly regulated.'

'How many motives has the French husbandman to be content! the fruits of his labour belong to himself; he is no longer crushed beneath the weight of taxes; the unhappy labourer is become a farmer, and the farmer a proprietor. Since the abolition of the feudal system, of the numerous seigniorial rights, of the privileges of the nobility and clergy, his industry brings him a clear profit, and money flows into his coffers. But the voice of this peaceable happiness, of the calm enjoyment of these men, is not heard; it is stifled by the cries of those members of the community who have the talent and facility of proclaiming aloud their sufferings real or imaginary; and yet, of the Frenchmen who thus live in ease and happiness, sixteen millions do not form an exaggerated calculation.'

We would here close our quotations and remarks, if we were not tempted to select an anecdote demonstrative of the folly and rashness of suicide.

‘ Madame Auguié, having been personally attached to the queen of France, expected to suffer under the execrable tyranny of Robespierre. She often declared to her sister, madame Campan, that she never would wait the execution of the order of arrest, and that she was determined to die rather than fall into the hands of the executioner. Madame Campan endeavoured, by the principles of morality and philosophy, to persuade her sister to abandon this desperate resolution; and in her last visit, as if she had foreseen the fate of this unfortunate woman, she added, ‘ Wait the future with resignation; a happy chance may turn aside the fate which you fear, even in the moment when you believe the danger to be greatest.’ Soon afterwards, the guards appeared before the house of madame Auguié to take her to prison. Firm in her resolution to avoid the ignominy of execution, she ran to the top of the house, threw herself from the balcony, and was taken up dead. As they were carrying her corpse to the grave, the attendants were obliged to turn aside to let pass—the cart that conveyed Robespierre to the scaffold!’

In this work Dr. Meyer appears as a philanthropist and a man of science; but, in some instances, he is too partial to the French: his fragments, therefore, will not please the enemies of that nation.

*Mémoire sur l'Écoulement Électrique des Fluides dans les Vaisseaux capillaires; par le Médecin Carmoy de Paris.*

*An Essay on the electrical Motion of the Fluids in the capillary Vessels.*

THE present memoir is worthy of notice, as it tends to correct some of those views which the enthusiasm for a new discovery usually inspires, and which, received at first with too much facility, have with equal precipitance been transferred to almost every branch of philosophy, and to different parts of physiology and pathology. The first phenomena of electricity excited admiration; and, in the astonishment which some of its wonders raised, various particulars, imperfectly observed, were admitted as truths. The annals of medicine confirm this remark; for, though many have been undoubtedly cured by electricity, physicians have not always examined, with critical accuracy, the facts which they have published. They have believed too easily what they wished, and referred

to their favourite cause appearances which arose from other sources. Every motion of the body was soon supposed to be occasioned by electricity; every disease had this fluid in excess or defect for its cause; every remedy supplied the deficiency, or detracted from the superabundance. To this eagerness has succeeded perhaps too great distrust; and we are now to begin with philosophic calmness, with rigorous precision, to examine the grounds of those hasty conclusions.

M. Ingenhoufs, not long since, published experiments, which deprive the electrical fluid of the honour of assisting vegetation. M. Carmoy's trials have been attended with a different result. It appears that, in a subject so complicated, some minute circumstances, which materially affected the result, were not attended to. In the present inquiry, the circumstances which require attention are not so numerous, nor does error so easily and unsuspectedly creep in: we may therefore depend more securely on the result.

No one has hitherto doubted, that electricity hastens the motions of fluids in capillary vessels: to bring this subject to the test was the object of our author. He employed, in his experiments, tubes of metal and of glass, of different forms. Those which were straight favoured the flow of water; the longer was the tube, the flow was less copious; and the diameters varied from  $\frac{1}{4}$  and  $\frac{1}{8}$  to  $\frac{1}{2}$  of a line. He at first made use of distilled water: but afterwards, on finding no great variation, he used common water. Sometimes the flow seemed to be increased by electricity, and sometimes diminished. We shall endeavour to ascertain the general result of these experiments.

A fluid which is electrified and flows through a capillary forms a continued stream, while, in an unelectrified state, it falls in drops: but the former point does not prove the flow to be increased; for, in the latter case, the drop is large and massy, while the drops in the jet are very small, and smaller in proportion to the rapidity of the flow, the power of the electricity, and the attraction of the neighbouring bodies for the fluid. This phenomenon is connected with the tendency of electrified bodies towards those which are not electrified.

The first experiment was made with a straight tube of glass, planted at the bottom of a metallic vase; it was 3 inches in length, and nearly  $\frac{1}{4}$  of a line in diameter. In a given time, more water ran out without the assistance of electricity than with it. When the length of the tube was diminished, the flow exceeded in a very small degree from the electrified tube. Our author then employed a tube of less diameter, of the length of four inches; and the quantity which dropped out was reater when not electrified. In a tube of one half

of that length, the electricity seemed to have little effect. With two siphons, of the diameter of about  $\frac{1}{8}$  and  $\frac{1}{4}$  of a line, electricity appeared very slightly to accelerate the flow; and, in general, from electrified siphons it was always very inconsiderably increased; but, on a review of the whole of this series of experiments, the result is by no means in favour of the supposed influence of electricity.

The electricity in these trials was sometimes stronger than it was at other times. The jet of electrified fluid was constant; but it sometimes slackened, though it soon acquired additional velocity: if a non-electric approached it, the acceleration immediately took place; but it was obvious to the naked eye, that in gaining velocity the mass was lessened. Some variations appear, perhaps arising from minute bodies imperceptible in the water, occasionally from the air itself; for fluids moving in pipes are often impeded, if there be not a sufficient number of spiracula. These little impediments sometimes occur at the curvature, so that probably the experiments with siphons are less decisive.

In the next series of trials M. Carmoy employed both positive and negative electricity. He employed a siphon, of which the longest branch was 2 inches, and the shortest one inch: the diameter was the 5th or 7th part of a line: the electricity of each species was weak. In this series, the positively electrified siphon had its current scarcely at all increased: in the negatively electrified it was a little augmented. In the next series, when a metal tube was used of  $\frac{1}{4}$  line in diameter, the order of the two electricities remained the same; but the flow in the tube not electrified was the larger. In some additional experiments the excesses were sometimes on the one and sometimes on the other side; but, on the whole, the flow was greater from the tubes not electrified. As the excess, however, was small, and as the results were sometimes a little contradictory, all that can be at present admitted is, that electricity does not increase the motion of water through capillary tubes; yet, in cases where slight impediments occur, it has some effect in overcoming them. This conclusion, omitted by our author, we draw from the uniform increase of the flow from siphons, where in the curvature some little impediment always seems to exist. An argument, in opposition to his general conclusion, is adduced by M. Carmoy from the effect of electricity in dissipating a drop of water suspended to a tube. To this he replies, that the alleged influence of the electrical fluid is observable in tubes, whether capillary or not; and it has never been contended, that electricity increases the motion of fluids in those of the latter species.

‘Capillary tubes,’ he adds, ‘offer phenomena which are

with difficulty understood. The increase of the flow, if it were well founded, would not be easily explained. How could the flow be greater in proportion to the greater number of the obstacles, and the resistance of the tubes? The property of bodies electrified in the same way, is to repel each other; and the electricity of the drops of the fluid electrified in a tube, tends to separate them in every direction, one of which only can assist the flow, while the others must obstruct it. Instead of being accelerated, therefore, the course of the fluid must be retarded. The latter effect would undoubtedly take place, if bodies were electrified in the ratio of their mass, not in that of their surface. The interior part of a body, however, does not appear to be deprived of the electrical fluid; it is in general equally full; but this fluid, like the principle of heat, seems to reside in the interior parts of a body in a latent state, confined, fettered, and inactive in particular circumstances.

That the electrical fluid attaches itself to the internal surfaces of the capillary tubes and to the surface of the contained water, is undeniable. This interposition must therefore press on the water, which, being incapable of yielding, must escape, and flow with a proportional celerity; and this celerity must be augmented when we consider the water as not contiguous to the internal surface, so that it is not entangled by its viscosity, which would act in opposition to the power of gravity. Besides, the water, when it escapes from the tube, is attracted as a light body, and subdivided in a number of small jets; so that from these united causes the flow must be on the whole increased. Thus we perceive the cause of the acceleration of the velocity and the diminution of the mass. My experiments show, that these balance each other, since the flow is not, on the whole, augmented.

M. Carmoy, indeed, is at a loss to reconcile these experiments with the effects of electricity in increasing perspiration. That it increases the quickness of the pulse he denies; and he suggests some doubts whether it really augments the flow of the perspirable matter: yet his own trials seem to show that it may have this effect; for electricity agitates the fluid, and, when the vessel is composed of an irritable substance, may certainly increase its action. We must, however, conclude with the judicious remark of our author.—‘Analogy is often a deceitful guide. We cannot be secure in reasoning from the same principles on what passes in living and dead bodies. Let us closely attend to facts, and avoid equivocal conclusions; leaving to time the care of maturing our discoveries, and placing them in their proper order.’

*Mémoire sur le Sang ; par les Citoyens Parmentier et Deyenx.*  
*A Disquisition respecting the Blood.*

**THIS** elaborate memoir was intended as an answer to a question which was proposed by the Royal Society of Medicine, and for which a prize was offered—"To determine, from modern chemical discoveries and accurate experiments, the nature of the changes which take place in the blood in inflammatory disorders, in fevers, in putrid diseases, and the scurvy."—Though modern chemistry has illustrated many parts of the vegetable and animal systems, the blood has not been examined with that strict attention which the subject deserves. The numerous treatises written on this fluid may seem to have exhausted the subject; but the disputes which still continue with regard to some of its component parts, show that something remains to be ascertained. The changes in the blood, from disease, form also a very important part of the inquiry: and the uninformed reader will hear, with surprise, that for five hundred years different disorders have been attributed to changes in the blood, and the same disease has been, at different periods, ascribed to different and even opposite changes, without one decisive experiment having been made on it. To the blood, indeed, too much has been attributed: and, after Gaubius and Cullen had so strenuously, and for a time successfully, laboured to establish the positions, that solids form the fluids, and that the changes in the former constantly precede those of the latter, some late authors have brought us back to the old system of Harvey, and endeavoured to prove the blood to be, without a metaphor, the *vital* fluid.

Without farther preface, we shall proceed to give some account of the memoir before us. The writers first give a concise yet comprehensive view of what has been already ascertained, with respect to the nature and properties of the blood; secondly, state their own experiments on the same subject; and, thirdly, examine the changes in the different diseases pointed out by the question.

As it is not our object to take notice of what must be generally known, we shall immediately enter upon the second part, and give a concise account of the facts ascertained by the authors' experiments. The blood appears, from their examination, to consist of a volatile odorous principle, fibrous matter, albumen, sulphur, gelatinous matter, &c. The proportions of these principles are infinitely varied in individuals by age, temperament, and manner of living.

The odorous part is very sensible in fresh blood, and gradually flies off, so as to be wholly lost, when putrefaction begins. It is not attached to the serum, and is less sensible in various dis-

eases: in some, it wholly disappears. Its greatest affinity seems to be to the crassamentum; and, in its nature, it resembles what chemists have called the spiritus rector of vegetables.

The fibrous matter, if not in a state of dissolution, seems to be very minutely divided. It is obtained by agitation, or a dilution of fresh blood in water. In the former case, it appears in the form of filaments adhering together; in the second, in that of membranous pellicles; but chemical re-agents show these to be exactly the same. This matter is less tenacious in young people, and more so in adults; and this appears to be the chief variety of which it is susceptible; for, in health and disease, in putrid or inflammatory cases, if the age be the same, it scarcely varies in its qualities. It contributes to form the crassamentum, in consequence of its contraction from rest, and probably its loss of heat.

The red part is greatly varied in different persons, by causes which are not within the reach of calculation or observation. In young subjects, the red is generally very bright; in old ones, it is of a deeper colour. Our authors made many experiments to separate the colouring matter from the other ingredients, but without success: it always contained a part of the albumen, to which it has a great affinity: each is soluble in water, and insoluble in spirits. They seem, however, to be of opinion, that iron has a considerable share in the colour, and that it is dissolved in the water by means of a fixed alkali, probably soda.

It is singular, that the iron is found only in the red part; but what becomes of it when it has been separated from the blood, chemistry has not yet informed us. The muscular fibres, supposed to be formed from the red globules, do not contain a particle of iron.

The albumen is dissolved in the serum, while the blood continues unchanged; but on the slightest decomposition it separates, one part uniting itself with the serosity, the other with the fibrous and colouring matter: as the separation only takes place from the loss of water, the whole becomes of greater consistence. In this state it may again be dissolved by water; but, when separated by heat or by acids, its solubility in water remains no longer. The alkali, perhaps, contributes to the solubility: but the connection between the alkali and the albumen is slight, as heat, spirit of wine, and acids, destroy it. In chemical properties, the albumen resembles the white of an egg.

Sulphur is found to be an important ingredient in the albumen; since, where the latter occurs, as in the bile, the brain, and various secreted fluids, sulphur is always a part. Its state in these fluids is probably not the same; but it should be examined more particularly. Perhaps some of the worst diseases



are connected with its superabundance or its separation, as the most virulent fluids of the human frame are hepatic.

The soda is always in the blood, and probably assists the solution of the different ingredients, particularly the albumen and iron. Like the iron, the sulphur, and the neutral salts, it may be the consequence of animalisation.

The existence of the gelatinous matter has been denied by Rouelle and others; but M. Fourcroy found it, and it may, at any time, be separated by a coagulation of the serum. As watery fluids dissolve the jelly, the serum generally carries it away, or unites it with the soda, albumen, and other neutral salts. The proportion of it is never considerable, and it is constantly separating, perhaps to form the solid substance of the body. No change occurs in it from disease.

The water, as may be supposed, dissolves and unites all the ingredients. It is probably formed and decomposed during circulation; and, in consequence of its decomposition, it may contribute to repair the deficiencies in the system. The proportion of water is continually varying; and in no instance did a greater or less quantity appear to be connected with any disease.

Such are the results of the experiments of our two authors, confirming some opinions, and weakening or limiting others. In several parts of this analysis, we have anticipated their remarks on the blood in different diseases: but we shall now shortly notice their observations in the third part.

Our authors' remarks on the blood in inflammatory diseases, are very particular. The buff was found to consist wholly of the fibrous matter; the crassamentum under the buff was soft. The want of concretion of the albumen contained in the serum, and its milky hue, in consequence of heat, were remarkable appearances. With regard to the cause of the separation of the fibrous matter, these writers are in some doubt. The density of the blood contributes to it; for, when it is diluted, no buff appears. It rises to the top by the diminution of specific gravity; and perhaps a greater degree of fluidity than usual may be required. To us, the solution does not appear to be difficult. It occurs in cases where the action of the vessels is strong; and the blood is then subjected to a kind of agitation, which, out of the body, contributes usually to separate the fibrous matter. This substance, ready to separate when left at rest, rises to the top from its levity, and forms an homogeneous membrane. It is highly probable that the new membranes formed in different parts of the body, in consequence of inflammation, have the same origin: when, therefore, the fibrous matter separates in so large a proportion on the top, the rest of the crassamentum must lose the consistency which it would otherwise have had.

The blood of scorbutic patients, when examined by these gentlemen, differed very little from that of persons in health: it had not the spiritus rector, and showed a disposition to form a buffy coat. It was singular, they remark, that they should not have found the proportion of serum increased, as so much has been said of the dissolution of the blood of scorbutic individuals. They admit, that the apparent quantity of serum depends on many minute circumstances in the operation, the shape of the vessels, agitation, heat, &c. but contend, that, at least in scorbutic patients, the proportion of serum is not unusually large. The livid spots, the spontaneous hæmorrhages, &c. they attribute to a dilatation of the vessels from weakness.

In putrid fevers, the blood, taken early, was sometimes buffy and sometimes otherwise. Our investigators, however, always found a tendency to throw up a buffy coat. There seemed occasional varieties in the density of the crassamentum; but there was no marked or constant difference. When blood was taken in the later stages, it was not essentially different. On analysis, the variety observable was only that of inflammatory fevers; and there was no change peculiar to what is called the putrid stage of fevers. On distillation, no volatile alkali appeared, and the progress of spontaneous putrefaction was not more rapid than in the blood of a healthy person.

When the want of putridity in the blood is compared with the considerable and decided putrefaction of the secreted fluids, M. Parmentier and his associate are led to conclude, that the putrid leaven exists in the secreted fluids, and that only the blood which reaches these is infected. This, perhaps, may be the case; but, at all events, the result of these experiments will lead us to distrust the confident assertions of the humoral pathologists, and to rest on the sound doctrine of Gaubius and Cullen.

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*Voyage dans les Alpes, précédé d'un Essai sur l'Histoire Naturelle des Environs de Geneve; par Horace Benedict de Saussure. Tomes III. et IV. 4to. Neuchâtel.*

*Travels in the Alps, preceded by an Essay on the Natural History of the Environs of Geneva.*

HAVING in various parts of our journal selected extracts from the former volumes of this work, we have had occasion to speak of our naturalist in terms of praise. The particular account of his second tome occurs in our LXIIId. vol. (p. 383); and we now turn to the continuation and conclusion of the journeys. They will form a proper supplement to those of

Spalanzani, and, taken together, they will afford, we trust, sufficient information to enable the reader to detect the fancies and the follies of some modern cosmogonists.

The second tour extended from Geneva to Genoa; and the travellers, Saussure and Pictet, returned through Provence. Their particular route lay through Annecy, Aix, over Mount Cenis, through Turin, Milan, Genoa, Nice, Frejus, Toulon, Marseilles, Avignon, Arles, Vienne, Lyons, and Geneva. From different places, excursions were made to examine the various objects of curiosity; and experiments, illustrative of points of philosophy, occurred on the mountains or the lakes. This journey, if followed minutely, would detain us too long: we shall therefore only mention some of the more particular objects, or the more important observations.

The first circumstance which attracts our notice is the stratum of grit, about a league and a half from Annecy, in a vertical position, though the stones are rounded, and the whole covered with a rounded gravel. The superior strata are horizontal. This stratum continues vertical for near 100 toises, in a straight line, and must have been formed by the ground on one side yielding, and also, as M. de Saussure supposes, by some additions on the opposite side. The phenomenon is singular in mountains of that order. The water of St. Paul, in the neighbourhood of Aix, is from  $95^{\circ}$  to  $100^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit; yet various minute animals inhabit it. Our author discovered in it two new tremellæ, which he thinks are capable of voluntary motion. On referring, however, to his own remarks, in Rozier's journal for December 1790, we think there is reason to doubt of this power, which would alone raise the lowest vegetable to the rank of animal.

In the road from Aix towards Mount Cenis, various devastations occur, from the mountains falling in part into the valleys. Near Aiguebelle, a village was destroyed by a mass of rocks. In this neighbourhood is a rich mine of copper, from a yellow pyrites, which produces annually 3750 cwt. of fine copper. From the furnace, spherules of copper, of a surprising brilliancy, generally hollow, are thrown; and it is an object of some curiosity to determine what fluid expands these cupreous pellicles. Perhaps the copper itself, brought into an æriform state (as Spalanzani has rendered it probable, that the substance even of lavas may assume this form), may contribute to their expansion.

In this part of Savoy, the writer supposes that an engagement took place between Hannibal and the Allobroges. 'If that commander' (he says) 'ascended the Arc in his passage over the Alps, as M. Abauzit thinks, the Allobroges probably fought their first battle with him between Aiguebelle and St. Jean de Maurienne; and in this conflict he lost a part of

this rear guard. This valley, indeed, is often contracted in very narrow defiles, shut up by very steep mountains. On going from Aiguebelle, we met, almost immediately, with a very large rock, which nearly shuts up the valley.

The description of the copper-mine of St. George is curious. The veins are large and rich, and are easily worked; and the mine is free to every peasant. The neighbouring inhabitants consequently neglect agriculture, and dig copper, selling it to those who take advantage of the competition, require constant abatements, and leave the poor miner indigent and miserable.

Near St. Jean de Maurienne, the vast beds of gypsum are remarkable: they rest against the primitive mountains, and sometimes cover them. The colour of this substance, when pure, is beautifully white; the grain brilliant; the strata horizontal.

The firs of the forest of Bramant are small and crooked. This tree, indeed, rarely grows straight to its majestic height, except in the regions of the north. It approaches to this state of perfection when crowded and kept probably from the light; for, as soon as any aspiring tree grows above the rest, it puts out lateral branches, which divert it from the perpendicular direction.

From Lanbourg (Lane le bourg) our travellers began to ascend Mount Cenis; and to the chapter which relates to that village, some useful directions for ascending the mountain are added. Mount Cenis is an object of no small importance to the traveller and naturalist. Its surface, below its highest pic, is covered with verdure. The plain is watered by a beautiful lake, which abounds with fine trout. The highest point of the mountain is about 1060 toises above the Mediterranean; and the lake is about 80 toises less. The rock consists of a calcareous micaceous schistus, covered with gypsum. The latter is generally disposed in horizontal strata, and is clearly of secondary formation: the naturalist, therefore, will have no difficulty in accounting for the fish, as the whole mountain, at whatever height, must have been covered with water; and many proofs remain, that the lake, and the little river which issues from it, were once more considerable.

The plain of Mount Cenis is open to the Italian coasts: the temperature, therefore, is much milder than could be expected from its altitude. The Cenise is the river which falls from the lake; and, as may be expected in a descent so rapid, it forms frequent cascades. The spray of these cascades is said by M. Tralles to be electrical; but M. de Saussure found no marks of electricity.

This mountain, from Grande-croix to Novaleze, consists of four grand divisions of micaceous schistus, alternately effervescent and non-effervescent, as mixed with calcareous earth

or quartz. The tendency of the strata is horizontal; and these are divided by fissures perpendicular to their plane, sinking on each side from different causes. In those parts where the atmosphere is confined by rocks, probably in consequence of vertical winds, the barometer is not calculated for an accurate mensuration of the heights.

M. de Saussure ascended Mount Michel, the highest accessible pic of Mount Cenis; and he describes particularly the rocks of which it consists. We can only remark, that, on this point, he found much serpentine and talc, which, as magnesian stones, show that it was once immersed in water. Some granite, recently formed, appeared in the clefts of the schistus. It is not easy to ascertain whence the feldt-spar was derived: the other ingredients are in abundance.

The philosophical experiments on Mount Michel are important. This spot is 782 toises above the lake, and 1762 above the level of the Mediterranean. As a fog surrounded the summit, the hygrometer pointed to extreme moisture; the electrometer was at first at two lines, afterwards at  $1\frac{1}{4}$ ; the thermometer was below the point of congelation. At the termination of the fog, the rarity of the air did not increase the evaporation of æther nearly so much as it did that of water: the heat of boiling water was about  $173^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit. The 'smoking liquor' of Boyle did not lose its volatility, as Mefs. Mongès and Lamanon supposed it to have done on the pic of Teneriffe: the evaporation was rather augmented, and its effervescence with vitriolic acid was more violent; and the appearances of the solutions of iron and copper did not resemble those which the French voyagers observed. The quickness of the pulse was certainly increased. At the openings to the plain of Mount Cenis from Piedmont and Lombardy, clouds were continually driving towards the mountain; but, on the plain, they disappeared, being repelled by the mountains, and dissolved with the assistance of their heat. When the rocks were cooled, however, these clouds were again condensed in fogs and in rain—proofs, in our author's opinion, of the vertical winds, of which M. de Luc has denied the existence.

'On coming from Savoy,' says M. de Saussure, 'the traveller is enchanted with the delightful vegetation of the vicinity of Novaleze: the vines supported by the trees, and even by the fruit-trees, cover the whole country, and still allow the earth under them to produce a fruitful harvest. I had left the meadows of Mount Cenis already withered and crisped by the hoar frost, and found, at Novaleze, the beautiful and varied verdure which characterises the beginning of autumn. Its copious and different productions give a smiling appearance to the winding valley. The surrounding mountains are covered with trees, which conceal their substance; and we are obliged

to search for it in the surrounding ruins.' These *debris* are the micaceous schistus of Mount Cenis; and the inhabitants pay dearly for the beauty of the landscape, as the warm moist air injures the constitution. Goitres are here a common disease.

The road from Novaleze to Turin affords nothing peculiarly striking; nor shall we add, from the little which our author has said of this capital, to what travellers have so often repeated. The recapitulation also of the various strata may be omitted in the present sketch.

The account of the excursion to the church of Sapergne deserves attention; but it is too long for an extract; and the analysis of the hydrophanous stones of Musinet would not, in their full extent, be interesting. It is sufficient to remark, that M. de Saussure combats, very successfully, the opinion of M. Beauvoisin, that these stones are the re-union of the separated component parts of serpentines, though he admits many of that author's chemical opinions, particularly the reciprocal solution of different earths—of clay, for example—by flint, &c.

The journey from Turin to Milan furnishes some singular remarks. The flints, which lie on the surface near Turin, are covered by vegetable mould, and successively by thick strata of clay, by sand and gravel. The whole tract is a perfect plain, and has apparently been cultivated from remote ages. The soil was probably brought by torrents of water from the neighbouring mountains, which, with their original velocity, carried away the flints, sand, &c. but when this velocity was diminished, the flints began to subside, while sufficient force remained in the flood expanding through the plains to carry the gravel and the clay. Hence it is evident that vegetation does not produce sand, but only the vegetable mould; for the latter often rests on the flints without any interposition of sand. From various observations our author thinks that the increase of vegetable mould is limited by its decomposition, and that by its thickness the antiquity of the globe cannot be estimated.

At Novi, the great road is connected with the mountains. These are a branch of the Alps separating the plains of Piedmont from the sea: extending on the east, they assume the appellation of Apennines; under which name they pass through the whole of Italy. The mountains which, on the east and west, inclose the gulph of Genoa, are united to the Alps without interruption.

Our author failed to Porto-fino, to examine the temperature of the sea; and he also surveyed the cape. It is a breccia of rounded flints, accumulated by some violent current from the lower parts of the Apennines, once covered by the sea. The mountain is divided by cavities, worn by numerous torrents: the whole view is highly unpleasing. The temperature of the

air was about  $53^{\circ}$  — that of the sea, at 886 feet, was nearly  $59^{\circ}$  of Fahrenheit.

The road from Genoa to Nice, along the shore, affords many geological remarks. The most interesting are those on the banks of sand and the caverns of the cliffs. Some of the cavities, usually attributed to the pholades, appeared to our philosopher to be the effects of partial decompositions, as they were not regular, and as no shells remained. Sand, he supposes with M. de Luc, is not always abraded quartz, but is formed by a kind of crystallisation. The vaulted caverns of the rocks would not have surprised him if he had witnessed the violent waves of the Atlantic, and even of the channel, which, on bursting into the cavern, are repelled by its extremity, and raised in a watery arch.

In the neighbourhood of Nice the thermometer, at the depth of 1800 French feet, was about  $53^{\circ}$ , while the temperature of the air was about  $62^{\circ}$ . This, M. de Saussure shows, is the mean temperature of the sea, while the cold of the lakes of Switzerland is much more intense. On an average, the heat of the water is about  $42^{\circ}$ \* at the bottom of the lakes of Thun, Brienz, Lucerne, Constance, Geneva, Neuchâtel, Bienne, Anneci, and Bourget. Various arguments are adduced to obviate the idea of the derivation of this cold from the rivers; and there is no great probability of its being the consequence of subterraneous drains from the glaciers: yet on the latter hypothesis we would rather lean; for our author's objections do not seem insurmountable. The cold winds which issue from caverns,—winds colder than the mean temperature of the earth,—seemingly arise from a similar cause; and these sometimes issue at a great distance from ice. It is, in the opinion of this writer, probable, that the mean heat of the earth has been too highly estimated: on the other hand, the great cold of subterraneous winds may be produced by evaporation. This question is discussed at considerable length, and the whole disquisition is very curious. We could wish that the philosophical parts of these volumes were selected as independent essays. In our present circumstances, we can only remark, that, at the depth of more than 30 feet in the ground, the variations of the seasons are perceptible; with this difference, that the heat gradually accumulating or gradually penetrating, proceeds very slowly to these regions; so that the greatest heat happens about December, and the greatest cold in June or July.

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\* All these degrees, taken by Reaumur's thermometer, we have reduced to Fahrenheit's standard. Raw.

From Nice the travellers proceeded to Frejus. 'High mountains,' it is observed, 'defend Nice from the northern blasts, and smaller hills more closely encircle the city and its gardens: thus the rays of the sun are concentrated, and a perpetual spring reigns in this spot, which renders it so beneficial to those valetudinarians who dread the cold of winter in more elevated regions.' From December to March, the medium of the noon-day heat was about  $54^{\circ}$ ; of the morning temperature  $45^{\circ}$ . In the neighbourhood of Frejus, the reputed lava appeared to be only the mandelstein of the Germans, a glandular rock; and the supposed volcano, on which Frejus is said to have been built, seems never to have existed.

In his second tour, M. de Saussure made an excursion to the mountains of St. Beaume, and to their projecting extremity, Cape Roux. About a league from Frejus he found some porous stones, which seemed to have been calcined, but it was certainly from a fire which had not penetrated below the surface, and which was perhaps accidental. In all these mountains there was no real trace of any former volcanic fire.

He proceeded to the Hermitage, in which the gardens are regular, and beautifully arranged, with two fountains, which constantly throw out jets of the coldest water. He then ascended the highest part of the chain, in which he found plants of temperate regions, so that its altitude cannot be considerable: the base of the mountain is porphyry.

Hyerès and the neighbouring islands consist of schistus (micaceous, argillaceous, or calcareous) in strata from east to west; these strata, if not primitive, are in an intermediate state between the primary and secondary. The mountain of Birds, which M. de Saussure ascended, for the purpose of observing the connection between the calcareous and vitrescible strata, is described with great luxuriance, as affording a prospect brilliant, varied, and extensive. Its substance consists of spherical masses of calcareous spar, composed of concentric laminæ: each lamina is formed of needles, converging to the centre of the mass.

'The view from the summit was truly magnificent: on the right, towards the sea, the town and harbour of Toulon, and the coasts still more distant, adorned with buildings of every kind, were seen: on the left appeared the road of Hyerès, its islands and its basin. Inland we saw the rich valley of Cures, and of Trois Souliers,—the most fertile region of Provence,—and the town of Hyerès, in an amphitheatre formed by a hill, crowned by a picturesque rock, with its beautiful gardens and manufactories. The whole united vast structures, and the maritime force of the Mediterranean, with the prospect of a country the most fertile, and in a climate the most delightful, of the whole globe, displaying the efforts of nature



and of man; the power and happiness which he could exert and enjoy, if he were capable of deriving due profit from his acquisitions. We saw the primitive chain of the hills of Hyeres pass to the north of this mountain, and proceed from east to west; a direction more remarkable, as it is that of the strata of the islands of Hyeres. It is, indeed, a general fact in the Alps—and it is pleasing to verify it in its last branch—that the strata follow the general direction of the chains, or the branches of the chains. It is curious also to observe this primitive confined by two calcareous chains; and the alternation between primitive and secondary mountains shows, at least, that geologists should reject or admit, with much reserve, the ancient division of the globe into sandy, calcareous, schistous, and vitrescible bands.

The mountain of Caume, and the extinguished volcanoes of Broussant and of Evenos, are afterwards described; but we find, in this account, no observation of importance. The mountains are dry and barren, burned up by the sun, or ravaged by torrents. The few plants which the scanty soil affords are taken by the peasants for fuel or for litter, and any increase of vegetable earth is thus prevented; yet records show that these mountains were formerly clothed with forests. The Provençal peasant is represented as at first suspicious, but as soon becoming cheerful and hospitable, if addressed with frankness and complaisance.

In his way to Marseilles, M. de Saussure visited the extinguished volcanoes of Ollioules, described by M. Faujas de St. Fond. The mountains in the neighbourhood are low, without any regular arrangement; and it is certain, that they form no link between the Alps and the Pyrenees.

He describes the different volcanic remains at Beaulieu with mineralogical accuracy. He there found basaltes, the appearance of which, in his opinion, shows that this volcano was once submarine.

The neighbourhood of Aix is calcareous, and of secondary formation. The gypsum forms vast beds; and clay and marl constitute the chief varieties. This region is curious for the impressions of fish, insects, and vegetable productions: the fish are chiefly those of fresh water; but the claws of some sea-crabs also occur, and occasionally a whole crab is found: the insects are sometimes terrestrial, but chiefly aquatic; and insects of very warm climates, particularly the *mantis religiosa*, have been discovered. The leaves are principally those of aquatic plants; but those of pear-trees, nut-trees, &c. have been also found: these are chiefly discovered in a calcareous schistus; but similar impressions are observed in very hard calcareous blocks. Above thirty species of fish are to be distinguished in this indurated state. The collection of

M. Segnier of Nîmes is rich in this line; it contains eighty-three species, of which Bolca, a mountain near Verona, furnished thirty-three; these are mostly of the kinds that abound in the neighbouring seas; but two resemble those of the coasts of Brasil, and two are unknown. Since that time the catalogue has been extended to 105 species, including many which have been supposed to be peculiar to the seas of Asia and America. M. de Saussure endeavours to explain these remains from some lakes emptying, and again filling, by which means fish are successively entangled in the calcareous mud that gradually hardens. It is not improbable, he thinks, that the same lake may be filled successively with salt and with fresh water; but this hypothesis is too extravagant, and we are rather inclined to believe, as we have often hinted, that the sea is the natural habitation of fish, and that fresh water is an element in which, though they occasionally live, they commonly degenerate: to very few species is fresh water a natural habitation.

The journey from Aix to Avignon, and the excursion to Vaucluse, furnish nothing which the general reader would find interesting. The country is chiefly calcareous, with an occasional mixture of flint and porphyry. From Avignon to Montelimar the country is flinty and barren, except in the lower parts, where the Rhone occasionally brings its fertilising mud. The vast masses of basaltes near Montelimar have greatly perplexed mineralogists. No volcano now exists in the neighbourhood; and these masses are too large to have been brought by any current: the explanations hitherto given are very unsatisfactory. The Rhone has evidently changed its bed, and may, perhaps, have overwhelmed or destroyed the former volcano, leaving only these indestructible remains. The tripoli of Montelimar is examined at some length: M. de Saussure thinks, that it is a fine petrosiliceous sand, deposited by water; and observes, that it does not always require the action of fire to fit it for the workman's use.

From Montelimar he made an excursion to the Chateau de Grignan, a place rendered famous by the residence of the daughter of madame de Sevigné: it is built on a steep mountain, which rises suddenly from a barren calcareous plain; and it displays all the melancholy grandeur, all the maffy security, of the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. The picture of madame de Sevigné, preserved in the castle, does not show any striking marks of vivacity: it is that of a fair woman with regular features. Madame de Grignan appears much more animated.

At a short distance from Montelimar, in a chalky soil, the botanist begins to find the southern plants growing wild; for it is generally true, that tender shrubs resist the cold

better in a dry than in a moist soil. The rounded flints of Here are particularly described. The author proceeded to Arles, after examining the plain of Crau, the Campus Hercules of the ancients, where Jupiter was supposed to rain showers of stones, on the sons of Neptune, with whom Hercules contended. This plain is twenty square-leagues in extent, of a triangular shape, pointing towards the sea. It is covered with rounded flints; and nothing, for a very considerable extent, can be seen but the sky and these flints.

At Beaucaire, M. de Saussure found solemn prayers for the cessation of the mistral, a north-west wind, very salutary to the inhabitants, as it drives off the noxious air from the marshes to the south of Languedoc and Provence, but injurious from its coldness and violence to the harvests. The mistral arises from an eddy of the winds blowing against the amphitheatre formed by the Alps and Pyrenees, and cooled by these mountains.

The excursion to the district of the Hermitage is interesting to the admirers of the excellent wine denominated from that spot. The country is covered with rounded flints; but the hills behind are of decomposed granite. These hills are dug out in a convex form, and thus increase the power of the sun. The granites of this region claim much of our author's notice. We find them alternated with sand and gravel. The union of the calcareous strata and of granite eluded his attention: at their junction, the stones are softened, and fall down in promiscuous masses, so as to conceal their union. In these granites, chalcidony is occasionally formed; the analysis of which is subjoined.

From Vienna the author and his friend proceeded to Lyons, over a country of sand, gravel, and rounded flints. Lyons is wholly in a granitic country. In the journey from that town to Geneva, no remarkable incidents or observations occurred.

*(To be continued.)*

*Annales de Chymie, Vol. IX. X. XI. (Continued from Vol. XII. New Arrangement, p. 543.)*

*Annals of Chemistry.*

WE are pleased with an opportunity of resuming our survey of the progressive volumes of this important work—an opportunity which various circumstances have long precluded us from enjoying.

In the first article which now offers itself to our notice M. Guyton renders it probable, that many of the changes apparently produced by heat on oxyds of metals, in vessels

hermetically closed, are occasioned by the erosion of the glass. M. Seguin's experiments on the combustion of hydrogenous gas in close vessels, and the mistaken idea, that barytes, magnesia, &c. are metallic oxyds, have been sufficiently noticed.

The abbé Haüy has found that the property of becoming electrical by heat, supposed to be confined to the tourmalin and the topaz of Brasil, exists also in the crystallised oxyd of zinc and the magnesio-calcareous borate. M. Vauquelin's analysis of the semen masculinum, is new and curious. Like most of the animal fluids, the blood, bile, milk, tears, gonorrhœal discharge, &c. it is alkaline, and found to contain 0.01 of soda. The crystals deposited, on exposure to the air, are of a transparent calcareous phosphat; and other crystals, resembling white opaque bodies, form in it some days afterwards. In moist air, it becomes yellow, and produces a large proportion of the byssus septica. It is not soluble in water, unless first melted; but, when it has undergone this change, water will dissolve it, though dried. The proportion of calcareous phosphat (the earth of bones) is  $\frac{1}{10}$ . The spontaneous liquefaction which it undergoes is remarkable, as it seems not to be the consequence either of the loss or accession of any matter: the principle by which the calcareous phosphat is also dissolved, is no less so. The remaining bulk is almost wholly water, with 0.03 of mucilage.

M. Bouvier found, in 1000 parts of the coralline of Corfica, 92 of sea-salt, 602 of gelatinous matter, 112 of calcareous sulphate, 110 of vegetable matter, and 75 of calcareous carbonate, with trifling quantities of iron, magnesia, calcareous phosphat, and flint.

MM. D'Arcet, Fourcroy, and Berthollet, have given a masterly report of M. Lavoisier's work on the principles of the art of making glass. Of this report we can give no adequate idea, but shall notice the author's new thermometer, for measuring high degrees of heat. Mr. Wedgwood's measure depends on the contraction of clay; that of M. Lavoisier on its tenacity. The cylinders of the latter are exposed to different degrees of heat, which are determined by the force afterwards required to break them. In his experiments the range is only from 17 degrees of Reaumur to 234°.

Berthollet's Elements of the Art of Dying are now known in an English dress. The memoir on the art of enameling, by M. Brougnard, is curious; but it cannot conveniently be abridged.

The new analysis of the earth of Marmarosch in Hungary, shows, that it has been too hastily concluded to be a calcareous phosphat. It is in reality a sparry fluor, with a little phosphoric acid. Its light is pale.

Since the discovery of Dr. Priestley, that the venous blood absorbs oxygene in the lungs, and thus acquires its florid colour—and also since the subsequent one of Dr. Crawford, that this union of oxygene alters its specific heat—physiologists have doubted, whether this change was at once produced in the lungs, or by the gradual combination of the oxygene with the hydrogen and carbone, in the circulatory system. M. Hassenfratz has made some decisive experiments on this subject, and has shown, that the lungs are not the only focus of the heat occasioned by the separation of the hydrogen, but that the same process is gradually continued through the whole course of the circulating blood. Dr. Duncan, many years ago, suggested the same opinion.

M. Seguin's memoir on the eudiometer, claims particular attention. The common instrument shows only the proportion of oxygene in any given air, without discovering the miasmata, which may make even the best air pestilential. In fact, the air of a fever ward, which almost deprives those who enter of their power of breathing, appears to the common eudiometer in a good state. The different plans of several other chemists are equally uncertain. Our author thinks his method less so. He recommends the destruction of the vital air by means of combustion, and the neutralisation of the acids produced by means of alkali.

A long memoir by M. Fourcroy, on the refinement of bell-metal, concludes the ninth volume. The object is to procure the copper; and, for this purpose, the best process, in his opinion, is that of oxydating the metal with salt or manganese.

M. Giobert, of Turin, who found some drops of oil on distilling the oxygenated muriatic acid, persists in supporting the reality of these appearances; but M. Fourcroy and others think it highly probable that the oil proceeds from the lute.

M. Raymond procured the hydrogenous phosphorated gas by the addition of moistened lime to phosphorus; and he thinks, that the oxygen, which acidifies the phosphorus, and renders it a menstruum for the lime, proceeds from the decomposition of the water, which leaves the hydrogen free to dissolve the phosphorus.

A curious work on the tar of coal, from the pen of M. Faujas, is noticed by M. Hassenfratz. The writer treats of its use in careening vessels, as well as of the different productions of coal; such as solid bitumen (pitch), mineral oil, naphtha, volatile alkali, the styptic water necessary for tanners, lamp-black and coke. Lord Dundonald's method of extracting tar from coal is added; and researches on the origin of coal and its various kinds are also given.

The chemical papers from the Royal Academy of Science<sup>s</sup> at Turin, are not very important. We may remark, that M. Giobert is under a mistake in supposing the Prussian acid to resemble the phosphoric acid, in the same way that the volatile vitriolic does the common acid. In the ordinary process, Prussian blue contains accidentally, but not necessarily, some phosphoric acid; for, if made in the Swedish method, the latter is not found. The same author's account of the phosphorism of vitriolated tartar is more curious: the light is evidently derived from that of the sun.—M. St. Real's paper on tanning is interesting. The art of the tanner consists in separating every thing from the skin except the animal fibres, and in joining these completely with the astringent substance. The gelatinous animal matter is dissolved by about 122 degrees of Fahrenheit; but the cellular substance will require more than 144 degrees. The count de Morozzo thinks, that the temperature of lakes towards the end of the summer is less at the bottom than at the surface, but that the difference does not exceed 7° of Reaumur.—M. Bonvoisin describes the preparation of the radical acetous acid from the crystals of copper, and recommends it as a slight and easy caustic. M. de Saussure's description of the cyanometer and diaphanometer, or instruments to measure the colour and transparency of the sky, cannot properly be understood in the abridgment before us. The effects of light, on separating the oxygen from the oxygenated muriatic acid, have been noticed in some late essays, and have afforded the foundation of an ingenious theory.

The chemical papers in the Berlin Transactions, are wholly the work of M. Achard. In the first, he endeavours to prove, that the heat of boiling water is not invariable. In vessels of the same materials, the heat varies in proportion to the aperture. In bad conductors of heat, as glass, the degree is uniform; but, in vessels which conduct it better, the variety is considerable. To obtain a steady invariable degree, the vessels should be of glass, and the opening small, or covered with a funnel full of cold water to condense the vapours. The other papers are trifling.

Among the discoveries announced in Grell's Journal, we may notice an acidulous soap, made by adding half a pound of white sulphuric acid to a pound of the purest oil of olives. The articles are mixed together, and exposed to the cold air, so that the superfluous acid may rise above the white coagulum. The acid is next separated by a filtre, and the remainder agitated, till it acquires a firm consistence: it is then soluble in water. The Iceland spar, supposed to be electrical like the tourmalin, is found to be so only in consequence of friction. All the transparent calcareous spars, which have a

double reflection, are electrical in the same way. M. Traffy thinks that borax is derived from animal substances, as it may be employed in preparing a red, which can only be initiated by animal matter, and as the earth, in which it is found, contains the *debris* of animals. As the phosphoric acid is vitrifiable like the boracic, he is of opinion, that the latter contains the former.

MM. Fourcroy and Vauquelin have given an elaborate analysis of the tears and the mucus of the nostrils. The former contain a peculiar mucilage, sea-salt, with an excess of soda, and an almost insensible quantity of phosphat of lime. The mucus is nearly of the same nature, thickened by stagnation and by the union of oxygen, while the soda is neutralised by the carbonic acid of the respired air. It is remarkable, that the fumes of the oxygenated muriatic acid will give every symptom of the most violent catarrh to those who admit them by inspiration, and that even smelling to them will frequently produce strong catarrhal symptoms.

The liver of the ray (*Raja batis* Lin.) is comparatively very large and of a delicate structure, containing a great quantity of oil, of a salt taste, and a fishy smell. M. Vauquelin found, that the oil contained between the molecules amounted to one half of the weight of the liver. The liquidity of this substance shows how much the limited respiration of the animal influences the consistence of its fatty parts. The human liver is oily, and in some diseases strikingly so. The livers of birds, and particularly of geese, exposed to a high temperature, and fed with milk, assume this character. The blood probably passing slowly through the vessels of the abdominal viscera, allows the carbone to unite more intimately with the oxygen and the hydrogen. Where the respiration is slow and interrupted, the union will be more complete.

M. Gentil's memoir on the colours of bodies, seen through coloured glasses, is very elaborate. The account of the various appearances it is not easy to abridge; and it is less necessary, as the whole series is the consequence of an optical illusion. The glass was found to be in substance greenish, and the red colour to be derived from a stratum of vitrified metallic matter. The principal effect was a diminution of the solar light, combined with the hues afforded by the glass and the stratum.

M. Fourcroy's memoir, on the union of the sulphuric acid with mercury, is interesting, as it contains a clear explanation of a medicine, the chemical nature of which has not been hitherto understood—we mean the turbith mineral. He describes, 1. the pure or neutralised sulphat of mercury, crystallised in prisms, soluble with difficulty, and

forming, with muriatic acid, the *mercureius dulcis*; 2. The sulphat of mercury with excess of acid, more soluble, but reduced, by the water which dissolves the superabundant acid, to the first species; 3. Sulphat of mercury with excess of oxyd, viz. the turbith mineral. It certainly contains some acid, but a larger proportion of oxygen, which it acquires from the decomposition of a part of the sulphuric acid by heat, absorbing oxygen also from the atmosphere, or attracting it from the water. The mercury is super-oxygenated; and some separate oxygen seems also to be combined with it. The experiments on the decomposition of these sulphats are not less interesting. The volatile alkali decomposes them only in part; the fixed alkali more completely. The former unites in part to the portion of the mercurial sulphat not decomposed, and forms a triple salt, which differs from an union of the two sulphats, since the acid can saturate more of the mercury and alkali in this state, than it can do when they are separate. In the process, part of the ammoniac is decomposed, and precipitates a part of the mercury in a black powder, which the action of light is capable of reducing.

The eleventh volume commences with some observations, by M. Berthollet on the dying efforts of the German anti-phlogistians; but these need not detain us. M. Clonet has attempted to prove, that the colouring matter of the Prussian blue is the result of the combination of volatile alkali with carbone. This point he has not completely ascertained.

M. Hassenfratz' memoir 'on sea salt, on the manner in which it is dispersed over different parts of this globe, and on the different means of procuring it,' deserves much attention. Salt is often found in granitic countries; and among the mountains styled primitive, deposited seemingly by sea-water, which, overflowing at different and sometimes distant periods, produces, by evaporation, successive beds of salt. In other countries, it is found among the mountains of secondary production; but it is then more impure, and is usually mixed with bituminous earth, probably the remains of decayed vegetables. Wherever a salt spring occurs, this writer advises an examination of its source, as it will probably lead to extensive beds of salt. In secondary mountains, the salt is on the tops; and the surfaces of those mountains, in which mines exist, are usually covered with fragments of gypsum, sea-shells, &c.

M. Sennebier found, that light, contrary to the opinion of M. Berthollet, had no effect on oils, when the air was excluded. When they were exposed to the light only, no change occurred, until the green matter had produced pure air: then the usual alterations of glariness, increased consistence and rancidity, followed. The light, however, greatly



accelerates the effect of air. Pure air seems to combine with the oily parts, and produce the change which gives them the title of drying oils. *Ætherial* oils are thus changed by air alone; but the fat oils require to be boiled with the oxyd of lead, which imparts oxygen, and separates the mucilage. Fat oils, which have experienced the united influence of air and light, resist the freezing effects of cold, like the drying-oils.

The memoir of M. Hassenfratz, on many vast masses of stone in different countries, deserves our notice. He maintains that these immense rocks, in picturesque and almost regular order, like our Stone-henge, cannot with any degree of probability be attributed either to human exertions or the effects of violent currents. From a concurrence of observations on the masses of granite near Montpellier, on those of calcareous stone near Toulouse, and on the grit near Fontainebleau, he shows, that they are masses of indestructible stone, united in strata with those of which the air can disunite the component parts. From this view, he traces with perspicuity the different methods in which all the varieties of these appearances may have been produced. We have little doubt, that this is the whole secret of the various masses in Great-Britain, which have so much engaged the attention of philosophers, and have been attributed to the Druids, &c.

M. Chaptal describes the method of making, from the thread of silk-worms, a very thin transparent web, which will even confine inflammable air, and may probably become of great use in the arts.

The memoir of MM. Vauquelin and Fourcroy, on the causes of the errors which occur in assaying unrefined saltpetre by a saturated solution of nitre, is not generally interesting.

M. Grossart, having stated some of the more general properties of the elastic resin, gives us his method of making tubes and other instruments from it. He cuts off laminæ from one of the common bottles, softens them, and then winds them round a mould. If pressed together in this half-dissolved state, they cohere at their edges, and form the instrument required. M. Fabroni has found that petroleum completely dissolves this resin,

M. Hallé has collected those facts of modern chemistry which respect animal and vegetable analyses, to assist his attempt for explaining the theory of the animalisation and the assimilation of aliments. He finds, in the vegetable food, the principles of animal matter, and thinks that the process of animalisation consists in increasing the quantity of azote, and diminishing that of carbone. This pro-

cells he has followed in the intestines, in the respiratory system, and in that of perspiration by the skin. It is effected by the union of oxygen. The memoir, upon the whole, is satisfactory.

Some doubt had arisen respecting the union of the superabundant oxygen with the vitriolic acid, by a distillation of it from manganese. M. Giobert has shown, that the acid can be oxygenated, and has pointed out the use of this compound. Muriatic acid can deprive the vitriolic of its oxygen, though the latter retains the air longer. The use of the oxygenated sulphuric acid is chiefly in bleaching.

M. Fourcroy has given an analysis of a very rare substance, the milky fluid from which the elastic resin is produced. The gum is dissolved in this fluid, and separated by the air, not by evaporation, but by the absorption of oxygen; and it thence assumes a brownish colour. In distillation, it furnishes volatile alkali from the azote which it contains. This resin resembles glutinous rather than oily substances; but it is more oily, and contains more hydrogen, than common gluten.

M. Hassenfratz, in his memoir on the kind of country in which coal abounds, gives a good general abstract of geology, and then proceeds to the marks which point out coal. The subject has some novelty in France; but, in England, it is sufficiently known.

M. Parmentier's memoir on the nature and *modus operandi* of manures, is by no means worthy of praise. It contains few of the more important principles, and is incomplete and unsatisfactory.—We must pursue the twelfth and the subsequent volumes in another article.

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*Des Caractères extérieures des Fossiles; traduit de l'Allemand de M. A. G. Werner, par le Traducteur des Mémoires de Chimie de Scheele. Paris. 12mo.*

*A Dissertation on the exterior Characters of Fossils, translated from the German of Werner, by the Translator of Scheele's Chemical Memoirs.*

TO review, at this time, a treatise first published in 1774, may require an apology, or some satisfactory reasons for the delay. In reality, the treatise of Werner was for many years little noticed even in Germany, and scarcely known in France, till it was translated a few years ago. It has scarcely yet reached many well-informed mineralogists of this country; and from the frequent reference to it, in some late works, particularly in the travels of M. de Saussure, it may be necessary to give some account of it.

The translation which is now in our hands, is the work of madame Picardet. Not content, however, with a mere transfusion of the original into the language of France, she procured from the author a great number of corrections and additions, which she incorporated in the work, and introduced explanatory notes, with some alterations of those passages, which later inquiries had shown to be inaccurate. Her style is pure, easy, and perspicuous; and this merit is the more extraordinary, as the German idiom is not very suitable to the French, and the language of Werner is often singular.

The great objects of a naturalist are to class all bodies, and to distinguish genera and species. The classification of organized bodies is founded on their relations and differences, arising from their conformation; and these furnish the characters which mark genera and species. In the mineral kingdom, the composition diversifies the species; whence Werner infers, that minerals should be classed from a consideration of their component parts, which is the province of the chemist; but, when the whole system has been arranged, the particular description of fossils must depend on their obvious properties, as in zoology and botany.

M. Werner divides the characters of minerals into four kinds—the obvious, the chemical, the philosophical, and the empirical. He examines the utility of each of these for the purposes of discrimination; and gives a decided preference to the first kind, as uniting every advantage that can be expected from such characters. These advantages are, that the obvious property is found in all species of minerals, and in every specimen; that this property discriminates fossils by essential differences; that it can be distinguished and determined with accuracy; and that it may be easily described without requiring a chemical process. Mineralogists have doubted whether this method can discriminate fossils with certainty; and, on this account, M. Werner engages in the defence of his position. As the external characters depend on the aggregation of the molecules, and this on their reciprocal attractions, it follows, (he says) that, when the composition changes, the difference of attraction varies the aggregation, and of course the external appearances. Thus the calcareous spar passing on to a carbonate of iron, becomes of a grey colour and more heavy. The difference, therefore, which an experienced eye perceives between minerals, is connected with a difference of their principles; and consequently the external characters distinguish, essentially and certainly, one fossil from another.

After an historical inquiry into the conduct of different systematic naturalists, who have attempted various modes of discrimination without success, he mentions the necessary conditions for an exact distinction. A naturalist must have a

just notion of the characters in general, must know their number, give to each a suitable and fixed denomination, attach a distinct idea to his terms, and point out the mutual relations of his characters, or, in other words, divide them into genera and species.

There are seven generic characters, namely, colour, cohesion, touch, cold, weight, smell, taste; and all are particularly examined. Colour is, in the opinion of our author, one of the most certain characters. His principal instances are metallic substances, of which each has a characteristic colour. This character, however, is variable in some of the stones; but it is certainly distinguishable in many, particularly in flints, several of the talcs, &c. For the mineralogist's purpose, eight colours are to be noticed—white, grey, black, blue, green, yellow, red, and brown. These are the species which, when combined, form every different shade. In the series of colours, and their varieties, the snow-white, and the blackish brown, which is the step from black to brown, form the two extremes; and the intermediate terms are placed so as to mark the passage of one colour into another. The last variety of yellow is the orange-yellow; the first variety of red, which follows, is the aurora: this is succeeded by the other varieties, till we come to the carmine, the true red; after this the colour sinks to a brownish red, and the next series begins with a reddish brown. Sixty-one colours have been distinguished in minerals; and, to multiply the characters which these different hues furnish, M. Werner points out four degrees of intensity, by which each hue can be divided into so many secondary varieties. Thus, with the additions of obscure, deep, clear, and pale, we have, according to him, two hundred and eight shades of colours, which we may employ in the description of minerals.

The second character, drawn from cohesion, is also very copious. According to this view, fossils are divided into solid and fluid. The character of strict solidity is ascertained by the sight, the touch, and the sound. The sight furnishes the figure, the surface, and the splendour. The figure is common, particular, or regular, that is, crystallised. The other members of the division are equally divaricated. As we cannot follow M. Werner in every part, we shall only notice what he says with respect to crystallisation.

Crystals, considered with regard to their termination, present either the primitive form, without any addition, or this form altered by additional planes. The primitive form is that which is composed at most of two faces, the one lateral, the other terminal. The changes in this form may take place in three different modes; by cutting off, when there are simple facettes in lieu of solid angles or edges; by division, when the facettes are double; and by pointing, when the extremity termi-

nates in additional facettes. To ascertain the primary form, the author advises, that the attention be fixed on the faces, near the centre of the crystal, to examine the form which will result from their prolongation. This advice, however, cannot be strictly just; for the primitive form of one substance may pass into another, equally primitive, as the galena may, from a cubic crystal, pass into an octaedron. He seems also to consider all the angles and the faces as geometrically exact, which, the abbé Hauy has shown, can never be the case. Various inconsistencies will also be found in the rule for ascertaining the primitive form by prolonging the faces. These considerations led us to examine the original; and we discovered a little error in the translation. The term translated *primitive form* is *grund-gestalt*, the *fundamental form*; but the French crystallographers mean by their term the most perfect form in which the same species of fossil can crystallise. This would not serve the purpose of the German mineralogist, who is teaching us to know a crystal, as it is presented to us by nature, and who, by fundamental form, means only to refer us to some known geometrical solid, which it in general resembles, but not with geometrical accuracy.

The five last characters are not susceptible of such expansion as the two first. From the touch, minerals are distinguished into the greasy, and into those which are not so.

Cold consists in a more or less decisive feel of coldness excited in the organs of touch, which the author presumes to be in the ratio of the hardness and specific gravity. The diamond, for instance, is the coldest of all minerals; but many precautions are requisite to make these trials in an unexceptionable manner.

The specific gravity, in M. Werner's opinion, is the best criterion of the composition of minerals; but the frequent mixture of these bodies with each other, their situation in different matrices, and their being surrounded by different fossils, render the observation of this character very difficult, and almost impossible. Even to those minerals which we obtain most distinct and pure, our author allows, that the hydrostatic balance can seldom be properly applied. The weight, therefore, by poising the mineral in the hand, joined with its apparent bulk, must be the criterion. We may add, however, that Mr. Nicholson's instrument, formed on the principle of the hygrometer, might be of great use in this inquiry.

The sixth character, from the smell only, points out those minerals which have no odor, in contradistinction to those which have an urinous, bituminous, or sulphureous smell. The last distinction, from the taste, must be employed with caution, as so many minerals are poisonous.

M. Werner, to assist the student, adds to the indication of

each character the mention of many minerals as instances of it. He has also given tables in which the same characters are so disposed, that, with a single glance, the whole series may be seen, and their mutual relations understood. The work terminates with general rules for the description of a mineral. The first rule consists in the union and determination of all the external characters that can be distinguished in it. The second directs the disposition of these characters, which must be in a systematic order, and that in which they naturally present themselves. Thirdly, each character must be described by a fixed and appropriate denomination; and thus the description will be well arranged, clear, and complete.

The author's object, therefore, is to teach the art of obtaining fixed principles, and of expressing them properly in words, in order to distinguish the impressions made by fossils on our different organs. The design is useful, if it can be rendered perfect; and an useful degree of perfection seems not far distant. How can a chemist describe the object on which his experiments are made, to ascertain the similarity of the body on which others may repeat them, if this art is not cultivated and improved? And if it is contended that external signs are not sufficient to distinguish minerals, it may be answered, that Werner does not trust wholly to them.

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*Dissertation sur l'Irritabilité des Animaux et des Plantes, par  
J. Peschier, de Geneve, Docteur en Médecine.*

*An Inquiry into the Irritability of Animals and Plants, by  
Dr. Peschier, of Geneva.*

THIS is an interesting dissertation; but it will only be necessary to give the result of numerous experiments, which form its principal bulk.

"We know," says our author, "that plants have almost the power of loco-motion, and that the movements of many plants are very extraordinary. The causes of their irritability are usually reduced to six: external stimulants, oxygene, warmth, the sexual stimulus, light, and volition." Some observations on the sympathy of plants are subjoined. The doctor, through the whole of the treatise, uses the term irritability, though he begins with expressing his doubts, whether the irritability of vegetables and animals be the same.

There are many vegetables, he observes, which move at certain hours only; and we have some of these in our own climate, whose motions we can excite or impede. The *berberis vulgaris* moves its stamina towards the pistil at the time of maturation; and, in a few hours, they regain their

natural situation. These motions may be often repeated, if we stimulate the base of the stamina with a needle. The leaves of the *mimosa pudica*, in the evening, approach and unite, so as to form in appearance a single leaf; and this motion continues till the seeds are ripe. The plant contracts in the same way on touching. The petals of the *silene noctiflora* roll up after sun-set, and, in the morning, again expand. This motion continues for five days: the seeds ripen, and the plant dies. There are many other very irritable plants; but we need not particularise them.

The first section relates to the effects of chemical stimuli and odoriferous substances on plants styled sensible. The nitric acid produced the contraction of the stamina of the berberry, and the leaves of the *mimosa*. The former returned to their recent state, but the contraction of the latter continued. In plants not sensible, no motion was excited. Volatile alkali produced the contraction of the stamina of the berberry; but no relaxation followed: the branch was apparently killed. The leaves of the sensitive plant did not contract till after a period of thirty-five minutes, and did not again expand. In some instances, the branch is said to have survived; but we are not informed whether the leaves resumed their prior state. The fumes of camphor destroyed the irritability of the stamina and leaves of the two plants; but the vapour of musk did not injure either. Water, if mechanical stimulus be avoided, has no effect on the irritability of these vegetables.

The German philosophers, particularly Girtanner, suppose that plants, during the night, absorb oxygen, which, on its separation in the morning, produces all the motions of the plant, thus becoming the source of its irritability. In reality, oxygen is the excrementitious fluid of the greater number of plants; and, in the vegetable as in the animal kingdom, the free discharge of these fluids is most consistent with health and vigour. When it is retained, disease, in the former, does not always follow, since it often combines with other component parts, and is found in a new form. It very often is retained in the form of an acid; but acid plants are usually insensible, and sensible plants have always an agreeable odour, scarcely ever acid: many of them have a gland at the origin of their branches. The origin of the style of the berberis is surrounded with eight glands, which are melliferous nectaries. In the *ruta graveolens*, there is an elegant circle of red points round the germ. The *parnassia palustris* has five nectaries. The *silene noctiflora* exudes a slimy fluid, of which insects are extremely fond.

The effects of heat were afterwards tried. A red hot needle did not effect the stamina of the berberry; and it only

produced an unequal irregular motion in the leaves of the mimosa. Cooling snow did not injure in any degree the sensibility of the plant.

The influence of the sexual stimulus was next examined. When the antheræ of the berberis were (and also when the pistil was) cut off, the stamina retained their irritability. The removal of the nectaries and petals did not injure it. Light did not affect the motions of the silene noctiflora. When it was plunged in water, however, the motions were irregular. The irritability of the mimosa is indeed lessened by the want of light. If its footstalk be immersed in water, the leaves will continue in their contracted state, though they receive the light: if they swim in water, the usual motions will continue unimpaired. Dr. Darwin's idea of the perceptivity of plants is brought to the test of experiment. For this purpose, our author particularly observed the flowers of the epilobium angustifolium, where the stamina, the antheræ, and the pistil, have regular and successive motions, during the impregnation of the germ; but these did not affect the series of motions in the other parts: there could consequently be no perception with a view to a final cause.

The experiments on the sympathy of plants are not well directed. In the sensitive plant the footstalk of the digitation, and the genuform articulation of the general footstalk, seem the irritable parts; but nothing conclusive follows respecting sympathy. The seat of the irritability of the stamina of the berberis is at their base. The motions of the parnassia palustris, ruta graveolens, cistus helianthemus, and œnothera biennis, seemingly arise from the growth of the leaves; those of the kalmia glauca probably depend on mechanical causes. There is no evidence of the supposed sensation, perception, and volition. The manner of living and the motions of vegetables show only an organised being, which is nourished, grows and decays. We shall transcribe some of the observations of Dr. Rutherford of Geneva, quoted in this volume, relative to the analogy of animals and vegetables.

‘ We have carried (he remarks) this analogy too far. If, by irritability, we understand the power of being affected by external bodies, it is common to every organised being: if we apply it to true volition, which has at its command a muscular power, the analogy subsists no longer. The fibres of vegetables may lengthen and shorten, but they are closely united, and not by a flexible cellular texture like the fibres of animals. The muscles are therefore flexible, and the vegetable fibre stiff. If we contract a plant at the articulation, it bends, and an intermediate space remains. Plants differ from animals, by their organs of respiration, and the gasses they



exhale. Their nature, their chemical principles, and their combinations, are very different. Should not, therefore, their œconomy differ as much as their functions?

‘From every phenomenon we may conclude, that the motions observed in some plants are owing, 1st, to an augmentation of the fibre; 2dly, to a more considerable increase of some parts than of others; 3dly, to the sudden or slow changes, the condensation or rarefaction of their contained fluids’—to which may be added the emission or absorption of different gasses.

We shall conclude this article with the distinctions suggested by M. Peschier. ‘Animals avoid hurtful aliments; which plants do not. Animals lose only some unnecessary part, as the epidermis; a vegetable dies down to the root. An animal preserves some irritability after death; a vegetable none. In an animal, though not in a vegetable, the same part has always the same irritability. The parts of animals become yellow by the application of the nitric acid, those of vegetables white. Alkalis and acids have more action on vegetables than on animals. The seeds of animals do not preserve their fertility like those of vegetables. If the branches of a tree are cut, the others become more vigorous: if a part even of a polypus is cut off, the animal suffers in its health and activity.

*Mémoire sur quelques Espèces de Chauve-Souris, qui executent dans l’Air, en volant, après avoir été aveuglées, tous les Mouvements qu’on les voit faire, quand elles ont leurs Yeux, & qui ne sauroient être executés par les autres Oiseaux privés de Vue; par l’Abbé Spallanzani.*

*A Memoir, by the Abbé Spallanzani, respecting some Species of Bats, which, after the Loss of Sight, fly about with an Ease and Freedom that no other Birds, deprived of Sight, are known to retain.*

OF this memoir an abstract only has been published by M. Sennebier.

The abbé Spallanzani was examining the functions of those birds which appear only in the twilight, and, among the rest, of bats. He was surprised to find that they would fly in the darkest chamber with precision, and not even touch the walls. He found them equally exact in their motions when the eye was most closely covered; and at last he cruelly destroyed the eye, covering the socket with leather. In this state the bat flies with the same ease as before. It avoids the walls, and cautiously suspends its flight in seeking where to

perch. It even flies out at the door, without touching the architraves. The abbé repeated his experiments on several species of bats, besides the common kind, with the same success; and similar experiments were made by Vassalli at Turin, by Roffi at Pisa, Spadon at Bologna, and Jurin at Geneva. We shall add Spallanzani's arguments for supposing, that, in these instances, no other sense can supply the place of sight. They are extracted from a letter to Vassalli, printed at Turin.

'Touch cannot, in this case, supply the place of sight, because an animal covered with hair cannot be supposed to have that sense very delicate. In flying through the middle of a sewer which turned at right angles, the bats regularly bent their flight at the curvature, though two feet distant from the walls. They discovered holes for their retreat; found a resting-place on a cornice; avoided the branches of trees suspended in a room; flew through threads hung perpendicularly from the ceiling, without touching, though they were scarcely at a greater distance than their extended wings; and, when the threads were brought nearer, contracted their wings to pass through them. They equally avoided every obstacle, though the whole head was covered with a varnish made of sandarach dissolved in spirit of wine.

'The ear could not have discovered a cornice or the threads: this sense, therefore, does not compensate the want of the power of seeing. Besides, bats fly equally well when the ear is most carefully covered. The *smell* might possibly assist them; for, when the nose was stopped, they breathed with difficulty, and soon fell. While they did fly, however, they seemed to avoid obstacles very well; and the smell could scarcely have assisted them in discovering the suspended threads. The *taste* must have been, in every respect, unequal to the task of supplying the place of sight.'

We cannot conclude this subject without some remarks. These experiments were equally cruel and unnecessary. As the bat is an animal which flies abroad at night, and in the twilight, and as its eyes are small and dark, without the construction which is required to take advantage of the slightest glimmer, it must have been obvious that nature had provided other resources. The mouth, for instance, is extremely wide, and the taste delicate. Though these animals are covered with hair, there are numerous nerves open to the impression of the surrounding air; and the impression of this air, in different ways, probably gives them information of obstacles, holes, &c. Thus we see blind men aware of an obstacle in the street before they reach it. We have seen them, on coming into a room, aware of its size, avoid a chair

in the middle, &c. On inquiry into the source of these feelings, they have referred it to an obscure sensation of resistance, which rendered them cautious. Animals intended by nature for darkness, must of course have these feelings much more delicate; and the impression is probably made on the organs of respiration. A Frenchman lately pretended to foretell the arrival of ships before they were in sight; and his pretensions were supported by strong evidence. He explained this faculty by intimating that he observed a kind of cloudiness, resulting from the meeting of the atmospheres from the ship and the land; and this explanation is supported by the great probability that each body has a peculiar atmosphere.

Returning to the immediate subject, we observe, that in the room the air did not afford an uniform resistance, but that something probably projected; and this conclusion, after the experience of a whole life, could not have been different. In the same way, while the bat flew through the sewer, it did not find the resistance equal, and consequently flew to the side where it was least; nor is it surprising that a diminution of resistance was felt in such small spaces as blind holes, since there are few such spaces in which the heat is not greater or less. Should this not be the case, it must be remembered, that the bat, flying against the air, must be sensible of a partial as well as a general resistance; and experience must have taught the animal, that, while the latter would probably open a free passage, the former must afford a resting-place.

Having lately had occasion to bear ample testimony to the industry and abilities of the abbé Spallanzani, we could not resist our eagerness for reprehending cruelty, which certainly was not necessary, since, in every view, it has added little to our general knowledge, and in none can benefit the human race—the only excuse for inflicting pain on inferior animals.

Since we wrote the above, the *Journal de Physique*, in which M. Jurin's experiments occur, has reached us. That naturalist first notices some peculiarities of the torpid state of bats; the manner in which they fix themselves to the walls and the vaults of caverns; as well as the food apparently provided for them, when they first emerge from the torpid state; viz. numerous moths and crane flies, which abound in the same spots. The temperature of the vaults was above the mean heat of the earth, rising occasionally to  $57^{\circ}$ , though sometimes it was as low as 50° of Fahrenheit. In a temperature from  $36^{\circ}$  to  $39^{\circ}$  they soon died, or became so torpid as to be with difficulty roused.

M. Jurin proceeds to mention his experiments. When fixing on its place of rest, a blind bat continued its usual custom of stretching out the neck. When one was blind and

Another saw, the former followed the latter with the most minute accuracy, and seemed, in passing through small openings, to clear them with even greater dexterity than the other. When the ears were bound up, a bat flew badly. Every bandage about the head, indeed, is not only extremely disagreeable to a bat, but seems to change the centre of gravity, so as to disconcert the animal's motions. When the ears were otherwise closed, it flew very well: when the ears and eyes were closed, it flew badly; but both operations must have considerably affected the animal.

To determine the source of this sagacity, our author examined those animals anatomically, and found a very large proportion of nerves, expanded on the upper jaw, the muzzle, and the organs of hearing.

These and other observations which he then made, appeared to him, in a great degree, to account for the extraordinary intelligence of the animals in question.

*Anéantissement de la Pologne, décrit historiquement, statistiquement, et géographiquement, par M. Sirisa; avec Estampes & une Carte Géographique. Varsovie, 1797.*

*Historical, Statistic, and Geographical Particulars, relative to (the now annihilated Kingdom of) Poland; with a Map, and other Prints.*

THOUGH Poland, once a powerful and always a respectable kingdom, no longer exists as an independent state, there is some pleasure, mingled indeed with melancholy, in contemplating its former glory, and in carrying our views through the stages of its weakness to its downfall. We wish that the last efforts of the people had been more strenuous, and that this ancient, warlike nation, which was alone capable of withstanding the united power of Germany, had roused itself to greater exertions than the hasty ill-concerted resistance made under the brave and generous Kosciuszko. But Poland was at that time weakened by the dismemberment of some of its richest provinces; mutual jealousy rendered the inhabitants suspicious; and the members of the equestrian order had lost that spirit and fire which they derived from their progenitors, the Sarmatians.

The map prefixed to this work marks the separations of 1773 and 1793, as well as the final partition. The vignette is fanciful and characteristic. It represents a large tree despoiled, in a great measure, of its branches; they are seen

falling at its feet, scattered in confusion ; the trunk, wounded on the right and left, is nearly falling ; some branches, rising in the air, form with the trunk the letter P. *Poland*. The Prussian eagle is perched on the left ; the Russian and Austrian emblems are on the right ; and on the summit is seen the white eagle of Poland, which drops a crown, languishes, and expires.

We shall select a sketch of the character of the late king of Poland. ' Stanislaus Augustus was possessed of many excellent qualities, and deserved well of his country. The severity of his fate must draw tears from every feeling heart. During his reign, he was incessantly anxious for the welfare of Poland : he corrected a great variety of abuses, and introduced some useful reforms in the administration of justice. He was well acquainted with the defects of the political constitution ; and he exerted all his judgment and activity to weaken or destroy the pernicious influence of other powers, too frequently felt. No one was prevented from approaching him : generous and benevolent, he did all the good in his power, and was truly a good king, but was too little known.'

We wish that we could have added foresight and decision to this character. Could Stanislaus have united the turbulent spirit of the nobles, and directed, against the enemies of his country, the fire which was exhausted in petty disputes, Poland might have still existed as a distinct realm,

Though Poland contains a great number of protestants, the catholic is the prevailing religion. The estates of the clergy comprehended nearly two-thirds of the country ; and, in general, their claims absorbed a fifth part of the revenue of the lands, without including many emoluments attached to their functions.

The philosophers of Poland have lately enriched the world with many more treatises than in any former equal period. The taste for science has even spread among the nobles. In former times, the Latin tongue, eloquence, and history, attracted the chief attention of the Poles ; but jurisprudence, and the constitution of their own country, sometimes shared in their studies. Lately they have cultivated, with some success, philosophy, mathematics, medicine, and the belles lettres. The history of the country owes much of its accuracy to the public library of Warsaw (founded by the liberality of the family of Zaluski), which contains 100,000 volumes, Posen possesses a school of exercise ; and there is another at Gnesen. Warsaw boasts of an academy of sciences, one of philosophy, and a school of nobles.

Dantzic, so famous for its commerce in corn and other productions, is excellently situated ; its environs are delight-

ful, and afford many charming prospects. A beautiful walk goes around it, which can be traversed in an hour. The city is divided by two rivers; but its population has gradually sunk from 80,000 to 40,000 persons; a difference attributed to a considerable excess of the deaths above the births: the difference from 1701 to 1793 exceeded 33,000. It must, however, be obvious, that this cause alone did not produce so great a defalcation; and the suspended sword of Prussia, the apprehensions of a change of government, and of its consequences, must have greatly contributed to lessen the number of the inhabitants, who, under such circumstances, sought a more secure settlement.

The situation of Warsaw is in a sandy plain, where it occupies a large space. The Vistula waters and adorns its walls. The stranger is surprised at the number of superb palaces which seem almost contiguous. The internal decorations of these structures, the choice of the furniture, the collection of pictures and engravings, the disposition of the gardens, &c. are not inferior to the beauty of the buildings, and equally show the opulence and good taste of the proprietors. A strange contrast sometimes occurs; and, near a splendid palace, are wooden barracks in the antique taste; but these are gradually decaying, and it is no longer allowed to rebuild them of wood. In Warsaw are 192 streets, many of them large and handsome, where the stranger may walk by day or night with equal safety. Even in April 1795, the population had sunk to 66,572 souls, of which number at least one-third consisted of foreigners. The towns above-mentioned belong to that part of Poland which was seized by the court of Berlin in 1793 and 1795, and which added more than two millions to the number of the Prussian subjects. The fixed imposts of this territory amounted to 7,421,472 Polish florins *per annum*.

Those parts which have fallen to the lot of Russia are equally important. The woods of Lithuania extend far in every direction; but, in the Ukraine, the forests are greatly decayed, in consequence of the wretched policy of the Polish government. This country abounds with mines of iron; the number of inhabitants exceeded four millions and a half, and the subsidies nearly amounted to eight millions and a half of florins.

Vilna affords a catholic university, under the name of *Schola Princeps*, which it received when it was established as a seminary after the expulsion of the Jesuits. There is another catholic university at Olyka; and the Jews have one at Brzesc, to which pupils resort from distant countries. At Vilna there is a *Studium Theologiæ dogmaticæ et moralis*, for

the use of persons of the Greek religion; a school of navigation, and a college of philosophy and anatomy, are also subsisting in that town. At Schwierzno is a theological institution; and at Grodno is a school of medicine, with a considerable botanic garden. Many other academical bodies are established in the late dominions of the Polish crown; and Catharine II. ordered the establishment of a seminary at Kamieniec, for the study of theology according to the dogmas of the Greek church, and for different arts and sciences. She allotted fifteen millions of florins for this institution; and the smallest salary for a professor was 1000 rubles.

At Vilna there were five printing-houses; at Grodno, Slopim, Berdiczow, and Poczajow, one. Poland had few manufactures; and the greater part of these devolved to Russia, particularly the lace manufacture, and that of silks and velvets introduced by Frenchmen.

In Podolesia, the marshes resemble lakes. If the river Muchawiek, which falls into the Bug, were joined by a canal to the Pina, which flows into the Pripetz, vessels might pass from the Vistula to the Dnieper, and, consequently, from the Baltic to the Black Sea. In early ages this passage was perhaps navigable, or the portage was short; for the commerce of the Black Sea, in the most flourishing ages of Greece, included a variety of commodities from the Baltic; and this was probably the course of the celebrated Argonautic expedition: but this subject we expect to see very fully illustrated. Till the more important communication shall be opened, count Ogynski has joined these two seas by cutting a canal, which communicates from the Sczara that falls into the Niemen, to the Pripetz which falls into the Dnieper; a canal which, besides its more obvious utility, contributes to drain the vast marshes of this district.

The last territory acquired by the emperor contains about a million of inhabitants, and the revenues exceed three millions and a half of florins. The university of Cracow was always the most considerable in Poland. The population of the city does not exceed 13,000 persons. Poonykow has a manufacture of excellent musquets, which are furnished at a cheap rate.

For some reason, perhaps a political one, that part of Poland which has fallen to the emperor is very imperfectly described. As the country is little known to the English, we could have wished for more information. We suspect a little policy in the change even of the epithet; for *Northern Galicia* is styled *Western*, and nothing is said of what has been called *Southern Galicia*.

*Gefänge Davids und seiner Zeitgenossen, nach Zeitfolge geordnet, und neu bearbeitet; von J. C. C. Nachtigal. Erster Band. 8vo. Leipzig.*

*Psalms or Songs of David and his Contemporaries, arranged in chronological Order, and placed in a new Light, by J. C. C. Nachtigal. Vol. I.*

**CRITICISM**, which hath been applied with such advantage in Germany to the classics, is not restricted to them; for the scriptures seem equally to have attracted the notice of the literati of that country. Since the lectures of Lowth on the poetry of the Hebrews, the poetical books of that nation have been considered with attention. Herder, in his masterly but unfinished performance on the spirit of the Hebrew Poetry,\* has more than rivaled his predecessor; and some of his countrymen have followed him with success.

The psalms, regarded as an Hebrew anthology, have received great illustration from the pens of Cramer, Stark, Vogel, and Hassel†; but the volume before us presents them in an original and very interesting view, M. Nachtigal having exhibited those which he hath selected under the united character of a drama, denominated *Zion*.

This drama is introduced by an ingenious disquisition, in which, after some pertinent observations on the importance of national songs, as serving to discriminate the characters of nations and ascertain their progressive cultivation and refinement, the writer proceeds to instance several, so as to make it appear that the Israelites were in possession of such songs from their departure out of Egypt to the time of king David. These were not merely of a private or personal nature, but were publicly performed with choral solemnity, all the people frequently joining in them; of which practice one example occurs in the triumphal song of Barak and Deborah, and another still more prominent in the poetical celebrity at the consecration of Zion. After the capture of Jerusalem and the reduction of the several Canaanitish tribes, particularly the Jebusites, David resolved to make Mount Zion, which he called by his own name, the capital of Canaan, and the centre of union for the Israelitish people. To accomplish this object, it was determined that the public festi-

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\* Of this work two volumes only have appeared. The third, which is to finish the plan, we have long expected in vain. The characteristic difference between Lowth and Herder is this: Herder explores, in the Hebrew poetry itself, its radical and constituent principles; whilst Lowth, like a cautious voyager, takes his bearings and courses from classical headlands.

† The *Lidgenmil Davids* of this writer is a work of extraordinary merit, and will amply repay reiterated perusal.



vals of the nation should be annually celebrated on that spot. Hence Zion became the sanctuary of Israel; here was placed the ark of the covenant, the covering of which was ornamented with the hieroglyphic symbol of the divine presence; and the solemnity of transferring hither this sacred deposit, and of taking possession of the place in the name of Jehovah, formed a signal epoch to the Israelites themselves, and the neighbouring nations.

In Zion, David raised a receptacle for the ark, instituted a festival for the assembled nation, and appointed for the celebration of this solemnity the chief priests and Levites, who officially took part in the songs. Of the singers at large the chief was Chenaniah, under whom they were divided into three companies, respectively led by Asaph, Zechariah, and Mattathiah, who, we may suppose, accompanied the voices with their instruments, both in the different cadences or changes of time, and at the prelude and close of every chorus.

The people, as in the performance of dramatic songs, participated in this celebration; and some, led by a small kind of cymbal, which the women in particular struck, at stated intervals sang in chorus the well-known expressions of assent or acclamation—"Amen" (*so it is, or so be it*); "hallelujah!" (praised be Jehovah!) "Jehovah is gracious, his mercy endureth for ever"—"Jehovah is king," &c.

Thus David conducted, in festal procession, the priests, Levites, chiefs of tribes, and the people, to the house of Obed-edom, where the ark had for some time remained; and thence he escorted it to the mount on which Zion stood, amidst the sounds of thousands of instruments, and choruses composed for the purpose, which at stated times and places were interrupted by sacrificial oblations, the troop advancing with measured steps, or rather in sacred dance:—

"*Ibant æquati numero, regemque caneant.*"

Passing through the gate of Zion, the whole company proceeded in full song to the precinct of the tabernacle. Here the people paused, while the priests attended the ark of the covenant to the place prepared for its reception. Many songs having been sung, and the joyful assembly solemnly blessed by the king, all returned to their respective homes.

The songs of the chief composers, David, Asaph, and probably Nathan, Gad, and Heman, are partially or fully cited in 1 Chron. 16.—The 96th, 105th, and 106th psalms, are in the number; and so applicable to the occasion are the 24th, 47th and 48th, that most commentators of modern date have referred them to it.

The choruses of the people may, in the majority of instances, be ascertained from the connexion, or from the earliest versions. They are indicated by the general style of

describing the solemnity of the day, by detached expressions of rejoicing, or by the beginnings or endings of psalms with the appropriate hallelujah.

Such is the simple historical detail of, this first species of dramatic poetry, which is by many centuries prior to the effusions of Homer.

In this representation, however, much needs to be supplied; and, as few traces remain in the documents of history to guide an inquirer, many doubts with respect to the alleged hypothesis may arise. Aware of this, Mr. Nachtigal proceeds to state the results which, after long research, have occurred to him upon the subject.

Having justly affirmed that the songs of the Israelites, partly styled the Psalms of David, and partly interspersed in their historical books, are unquestionably amongst the choicest flowers of poetic production, this ingenious critic intimates, that they are not arranged in order of time, or even ranked by affinity of subject. This indeed is obvious; for the songs of David are placed after others written during the captivity, whilst some of Asaph are preceded by those of Hezekiah and Jeremiah. The title of *psalm* might be thought to afford some scope for conjecture; but, while no mention occurs of time or of author, a little inquiry will shew the titles to have been of later date, many being posterior to the Alexandrine version, and some differing from the present in the Syriac translation (see psalms 54, &c.); whilst compositions much more recent, appear under the names of David and Asaph. See psalms 14, 53, 69, 74, 79, 124, &c.

Songs, in themselves distinct, have not been kept so; and others entire have been broken. Instances of the former remark occur in the 18th, 19th, 39th, 40th, 51st, 57th, and other psalms; and of the latter, in the 9th and 10th, which are three joined together, as are the 42d and 43d. Besides, many of these songs are but *membra disjecta*. Hence, rightly to understand these various compositions, it will be requisite to arrange them according to their contents, separate what will not correspond, and unite what would obviously make out the sense.

A further expedient for restoring particular songs is the consideration of their having been adapted to music, and been actually sung in choral divisions. In this class may be reckoned those inscribed "Lamnazeach," which implies a direction to the principal singer that the songs were to be sung in chorus. At present, however, this index is not perfectly exact; and, unquestionably, it is often omitted.

The musical signs of every rest, which the modern divisions into verse by no means represent, are all nominally lost, except in the instance of *Selah*, which either denoted a general

pause, or an alternation of chorus, particularly when the people struck in, or accompanied the music with 'Amen! —hallelujah! —Jehovah is gracious,' &c. In many cases this sign appears to indicate a change of mode and time, as may be seen in the 32d psalm; and, without doubt, it served various uses in the more simple music of antiquity, for which the modern hath multiplied substitutes.

The office of *Menezzeach* corresponded to that of chief composer, or director of the band; whence the manner of singing the different parts, interchange of instruments, divisions of the cheruses and particular accompaniments, were all regulated by him. The importance of this office may be conceived from the many performers who joined in chorus, amounting from 10,000 to 50,000 Israelites.

The Israelites had unquestionably particular styles of singing, in which their modes and times were adapted to the subject, as in the martial song, love-strain, and elegy; whence, probably, the inscriptions "al muthlaben—al ajelet hashachar—al shoshanim—al jonat elem rehokim—al tashet—al shushan edut—el nechilot—binginat—al gidit—al machalat—al sheminit," &c.—point out the musical instruments appropriate to each.

A comparison, instituted by our author, between the ancient Hebrew music in its most simple state and that of the Greeks, especially the Athenians, tends materially to illustrate both; but this, with other amplifications, particularly those which relate to the dramatic part of the subject, we with regret must forego. Suffice it to observe, on this whole disquisition, that it merits, from its simplicity as well as from its acuteness, a high degree of commendation.

The divisions of the *drama*, with the order of songs under each, are the following:

I. *Songs at the foot of the mount upon which Zion stood.*

1. Psalm 98.—2. Psalm 96.

II. *Songs sung in ascending the mountain.*

1. Psalm 68.—2. Exodus 15, 1-18.—3. Psalm 66.—4. Psalm 107.—5. Psalm 47.

III. *On the summit of the mountain.*

Psalm 133.

IV. *Before the gate of Zion.*

Psalm 24.

V. *On entering into Zion.*

Psalm 100.

VI. *On entering the outer court of the tabernacle of the congregation.*

Psalm 117. Psalm 118, 1-4, 19-29.

VII. *On resting the ark of the covenant.*

VIII. *After the ark of the covenant had been deposited in its place.*

Psalms 132, 8, 9, 13-18.

1. Psalm 99.—2. Psalms 105 and 106.—3. Psalm 114.—  
4. Psalm 2.—5. Psalm 75.—6. Psalm 76.—7. Psalm 97.—  
8. Psalms 9 and 10.—9. 1 Samuel, ii. 1-10 and Psalm  
113.—10. Psalm 46.—11. Psalm 29.—12. Psalm 93.—  
13. Psalm 87.—14. Psalm 125.—15. Psalms 135 and 136.—  
17. Psalm 128.—18. 1. Chron. xvii. 36.

As a specimen of the manner of the choral divisions, the 98th Psalm, supposed to be the first sung at the foot of the mountain, is annexed.

*First Chorus.*

1. Sing to Jehovah a new song!  
Wonderful are his deeds.  
His uplifted right-hand hath obtained for him the  
victory\*.

*Second Chorus.*

2. Jehovah hath made his victory known.  
He hath manifested himself as sovereign  
To the people of other lands.†

*Third Chorus.*

3. He remembereth the good he promised to Israel.  
The remotest lands have witnessed  
The victory of our God!

*Full Chorus.*

Praise Jehovah!

*The People.*

Praised be Jehovah!

*First Chorus.*

4. Shout joyfully to Jehovah, all inhabitants of the land!  
Be glad, sing and rejoice.

*Second Chorus.*

5. Sing to Jehovah with the harp, the viol, the trumpet,  
the loud-toued horn!

*Third Chorus.*

6. Shout joyfully, shout joyfully to Jehovah!  
He is the king!

*Full Chorus.*

Jehovah is king!

*The People.*

Jehovah is king!

\* The wars and victories of the Israelites were usually represented by the Hebrew poets as the wars and victories of Jehovah, and Jehovah as enthroned upon Zion, the sovereign of all the land of Canaan.

† Phœnicia, Egypt, Idumea, &c.

*First Chorus.*

7. Let the sea again rejoice, and the fullness thereof ;  
The land, with those that dwell therein.

*Second Chorus.*

8. Let the floods clap their hands ;  
The surrounding mountains resound to Jehovah ! \*

*Third Chorus.*

9. He cometh, he cometh, the king of the land ! †  
The righteous Lord ruleth the world, ‡  
The rightful Lord of the people !

*Full Chorus.*

He cometh, he cometh, the king of the land !

*The People.*

He cometh, he cometh, the king of the land !

It is observable that Mr. Henley, in a note inserted by Dr. Gregory at the end of the first volume, if we mistake not, of his translation of Lowth's prælections, proposed a similar method of dividing the psalms.

*Origin, Progress, and present State of the Russian Hunting-Music, by J. C. Elinrich, with Engravings (German). Petersburg.*

THIS curious work we have selected, since it affords a picture of rude splendor and magnificence, unknown in this country, as well as some improvements of an instrument, which, in our hands, is not capable of great variety. The author himself is an able musician, and has resided many years at Petersburg. The introduction explains the subject in the following manner.

‘ The hunting-music of the Russians, called also the music of the horns, is *unique* in its kind, and singular in its origin ; and it has been carried to such a degree of perfection, and is so enchanting, not only to connoisseurs, but also to those who are not exquisitely musical, that its history should have been long ago written, instead of our being contented with the present attempt, which aims only at establishing its existence.’

Though the author had cultivated the friendship of the inventor of this music for five years, he would not perhaps have undertaken its history, if he had not, after the death of his friend,

\* All participate in the joyful festival and triumphal procession of the day.

† On the ark of the covenant.

‡ Instead of the *terrestrial globe* or *world*, the original might have been rendered, *the land*, to shew that the present system was not in contemplation.

been so fortunate as to obtain some manuscripts relative to this subject. He acknowledges that some difficulty would attend the introduction of this music into other countries; but he hopes, that the basses of this instrument may be employed in reinforcing church-music. 'I cannot,' he adds, 'fancy any thing more majestic and sublime, than the Heilig of Bach, executed in a large church, by a well-selected double choir, the basses being filled up with the music of the horns.'

The inventor of the Russian hunting-music was J. A. Marefch, who was born in Bohemia in 1719. He repaired to Petersburg in 1748, and entered into the service of the count de Bestuchef. When the empress Elizabeth dined, one day, with the minister, she was so much pleased with Marefch's performance on the horn, that she offered to take him into her own service. He accepted the offer, and was appointed musician of the chamber. In this station, he invented the present music; and the direction of it was assigned to him, under the title of Master of the Imperial Chapel. He died in 1794.

In its execution, a great number of horns are employed; some long and straight, others more or less short, and a little curved, but all of the same tone. The vignette of the book represents a band playing. Twenty musicians, at least, are required; but forty would not be sufficient, as there are ninety-one sounds in all, if some of the performers, having little to do, were not able conveniently to attend more than one horn at a time. Some of these instruments descend lower than the common horns; and the sounds are thus rendered more tremulous, and more forcibly affect distant auditors. This music has been brought to such perfection, that the quartettos and quintettos of Haydn, Mozart, and Pleyel, may be performed with it, and the concertos of Giornovich executed even to the shake, with admirable precision and celerity. What occasions particular astonishment is, the accurate execution of *rf*, *sf*, *mf*, *pf*, *cal*, &c. to which may be added the strong though pleasing rest, on the slow and dying notes, producing a very fine effect in the pathetic passages.

The best band, at present known, is that of the chamberlain Wadkowskoi. There was another equally superb under the direction of Charles Lau, of the Imperial Corps of Chasseurs; it belonged to count Rasumowskoi. He resigned it to prince Potemkin, who carried it with him in all his expeditions. This band was dispersed at his death, so that M. Lau could not collect above seven or eight individuals.

In 1763, this music was employed with brilliant success, at an extraordinary festival. During the last week of a Russian carnival, a hill, six toises in height, and forty in circumference, was seen to advance. It was so well covered with trees

and stirrds, that the sledge on which it was carried did not appear. In this wood were many deer, hares, foxes, and different kinds of game that had been killed; and the musicians, who were concealed by the foliage, so that their bonnets only were seen, struck up a concert, which seemed the effect of enchantment.

*Commentationes editæ a Johanne Casparo Velthufen, Ecclesiæ Sacrisque Ducat. Brem. et Verd. Præfetto, Christiano Theoph. Kuinoel, Professore Lipsiensi, et Georgio Alexandro Ruperti, Gymnasii Stadenfis Rectore. Vols. I. II. III. 8vo. Lipsiæ.*

*Commentaries and Dissertations published at different Times, and now collected.*

THESE volumes consist of discourses *ex cathedra*, academical essays, &c. They have not been indiscriminately taken, but have been selected with the best judgment of the editors, who are well qualified for the task; and many have been corrected and improved. We may observe, that, in pieces of this kind, the authors are stimulated to exert their greatest efforts, but that the narrow limits to which they are confined prevent their powers from having full play.

The subjects of this compilation are as follow:

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Such are the subjects discussed in these volumes; and, of the dissertations that compose them, many would furnish interesting extracts; but we shall content ourselves with analysing the production of Schmid, and quoting a piece by Winterberg.

In defending the genuineness of the two first chapters of St. Matthew, Schmid forms three divisions. In the first, after observing, that the principles of just criticism will by no means authorise us to consider any book, whether sacred or profane, as spurious or interpolated, because it contains what we cannot explain, he proceeds to state the different views of the evangelists, as a sufficient ground to account for the omissions by one of what another relates, and afterwards examines the arguments drawn from Tatian and the Ebionites. Of Tatian he remarks, that, instead of the whole two chapters, his exclusion extends only to the genealogy, as being unfavourable



to his own notions; and that his other omissions are not confined to St. Matthew, but involve all those passages of the evangelists in which Jesus is styled the son of David. The Ebionites, as well as Tatian, held peculiar opinions, besides denying the divinity of Christ. The contents of these chapters being incongruous with the dogmas of this sect, they must either have renounced the one or the other.

In the next section, the dissertator maintains that these chapters exist in the best and most ancient copies and versions, and, with an exception of the instance of Tatian and the Ebionites, were admitted on all sides as part of the gospel. Cerinthus and Carpocrates cavil at the pedigree of Christ, as given by St. Matthew; and Celsus, the most acute enemy of Christianity, ridicules this part of the evangelist's narrative. The account of the magi and star hath been cited by various writers; and Ignatius, the disciple of St. John, expressly quotes the 23d verse of the 1st chapter, and adverts to the magi and the star. By Justin Martyr, besides his having cited Matth. i. 23. and ii. 6—18, the history of the birth of Jesus, of the magi, star, and flight into Egypt, is detailed almost in the evangelist's order; whilst Irenæus, besides mentioning the gospel of St. Matthew as beginning with ΒΙΒΛΟΣ ΓΕΝΕΣΕΩΣ Ἰησοῦ Χριστοῦ υἱοῦ Δαβὶδ, υἱοῦ Αβραάμ, hath quoted ch. i. 20. and ch. ii. 2—15. Other authorities are added from Tertullian, Theodoret, Julius Africanus, Cyprian, Chrysostom, and Augustin, as well as from Sedulius, Juvencus, and Prudentius.

The third section is occupied by a grammatical investigation, in which it is evinced that the phrase, *ἐν δὲ ταῖς ἡμέραις ἐκείναις*, could not have begun a narration, but is only proper in connecting subordinate occurrences with others immediately preceding. Besides, were it otherwise, nearly thirty years would be cut off from the history, as the *ἐν δὲ ταῖς ἡμέραις* must refer to the days of Herod Antipas.

The comments of Winterberg on Luke xvi. 9, are judicious.—The following is the result.

‘Ex his omnibus apparet, unicam loci nostri interpretationem hanc esse: facite vobis, donec felices fueritis, et divitiarum, et ab ancipiti temporum casuumque mutatione pendendum, copia instructi, facite igitur vobis et comparate, beneficiendo et juvando, amicos, qui, si quo repentino casu, quem homines, cum externa omnia mutabilia perdideritis, habeatis, qui vos in domicilia sua benigne receptos, ad vitæ usque finem, rebus necessariis instruant.’

Two additional volumes of these Commentaries are published, which we hope soon to receive

*Augusta; Roman. 3 Tomes. 1798.**Augusta; a Novel. Dulau.*

THE marquis de Valbont, a man of debauched manners, is captivated at Paris by the modest attractions of Augusta, an English woman of a sedate character; while his melancholy friend and her gay correspondent become enamoured of each other in England. The story is developed in letters; and the following epistle affords a favourable specimen of the talents of the writer.

*' Augusta to the Marquis de Valbont.*

' Be assured, Sir, that you would never have received a letter from me, if your extraordinary conduct, and the scene which I have recently witnessed, had not betrayed those sentiments which render me culpable in my own eyes, and perhaps despicable in yours. Enjoy your triumph, Sir; assimilate the too wretched Augusta to those women whom you have seduced without loving, and who have lost all just pretensions to your esteem. I complain of nothing. Alas! what have I not deserved, since I have dared to transgress a duty, and since I am no longer irreproachable?

' If, however, you could read my heart, if you could witness the bitter sorrow which my weakness entails upon me, if you could judge of my own struggles, and of the singular situation in which I have been placed, you might indeed refuse me that esteem which my conduct ought not to obtain; but you would at least grant me your pity.

' Why have I not been the only victim of a foolish love? why has the empire of friendship joined its power to the force of a sentiment which I could with difficulty resist? why has that life which is so dear to me, been dangerously threatened? Alas! why have I been reduced to the cruel alternative of seeing that life terminated, or of becoming culpable? It must have been a virtue more than human, that could have resisted so many imperious circumstances. I thought I could save you, and I have sacrificed myself.

' Still, Sir, I hope you will not imagine that one dereliction of my principles can make me transgress them a second time. I am far from wishing to raise in your heart a deceitful hope, which it does not depend on me to give. If my consent alone were necessary to link my existence for ever to yours, the unhappy Augusta would not long suffer; but the right to dispose of my hand belongs to my parents; it is only under the auspices of their consent that I will form the ties of marriage; and it is dreadful to me not to be able to conceal from myself, that the views and prejudices of my father will ever be invincible obstacles to my sole wishes and to your love.

‘ Do not, however, hate Augusta, if she has innocently caused you so much pain; she has suffered nothing but sorrow herself, since that fatal period. Live, if her existence is dear to you; give to her weakness the example of courage and of virtues which undoubtedly you possess in a greater degree. Be the incorruptible guardian of my innocence; strengthen the purity of those sentiments, which a most estimable mother has instilled into my heart; then will you become worthy of the too lively affection with which you have inspired me; I shall blush less for my conduct; I shall perhaps dare to be proud of my love.’

Before we dismiss the work, we will extract another letter.

‘ *The Marquis de Valbont to Miss Augusta.*

‘ It is Augusta who writes to me—O God, support my weakness; give to my heart, enfeebled by its grief, strength to resist the ineffable sensations which it experiences. Yesterday I ardently implored thee to take my life; to-day it would be dreadful to die.—A divine woman partakes of my love; she extends to me the hand of succour; her tender plaintive voice conjures me to regard my own preservation. Yes, my adorable friend! I will live to render myself worthy of your love, and of the happiness which it prepares for me.

‘ Your letter, my virtuous friend, has shed a sovereign balm into my soul, and already I feel its salutary effects; but they would have been more speedy if you had not exhibited to me the cruel picture of those fears of which the bare idea wounds me. Be not *half* generous; permit me to hope that I may one day be united to you. Alas! will this be an illusion? I cannot suffer it to be destroyed: Augusta is doubtless faithful, and loves me truly. What then is the obstacle to our union? the father of Augusta must possess virtues; had he only judgment, your fears would become a phantom. Whatever may be the fate that awaits me, deign to receive my vow. I swear by my love, as by what is most sacred to me, never to light the torch of Hymen but in uniting myself to my Augusta.

‘ You who abhor injustice, how could you write to me not to hate you? Do you not know my sentiments and my heart? Have you not long known the cruel state into which your pretended indifference had plunged me? In one word, ought you not to believe that all the evil you could do me would be an hundred times more precious than all the good which could accrue to me from another? Be not angry; I have effaced from your letter that line which paints ingratitude; surely it was not dictated by your heart.

‘ This is not the only reproach which I must make. To point out the means of deserving you, is to injure my love, and to intimate that I have not known how to value you, that I have mistaken some of your virtues, or that my old errors could still have some dominion over me. Believe, my sweet friend, that the love which Augusta inspires must soon purify even the most corrupted heart, and that no lover could be so audacious as to offer her his homage, without having first raised a temple to innocence, to truth, to all the simple and domestic virtues; it is only after having long burned the incense of a pure heart upon these altars, that he could venture to bring his vows and feelings to your feet. Know your lover better; he may not indeed have all the advantages which he ought to have, to possess you; but he can at least affirm that he never will render himself despicable in your eyes.’

The attempt to imitate Rousseau in these letters will be obvious to every reader; and the author has chosen the same model for his notes: but the inferiority is obvious.—In the first letter, *Boonwicht* is mentioned as the name of a country-seat in England. It is strange that the French will employ such barbarous terms for English words.

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*Lettres choisies de Mesdames de Sevigné et de Maintenon; avec une Préface & des Notes. Par M. l'Abbé de Lévizac. 1798.*

*Select Letters of Madame de Sevigné and Madame de Maintenon. Dulau.*

THE motives for making this selection from the celebrated but voluminous letters of madame de Sevigné are well expressed by M. de Lévizac in his preface. There are two reasons, he says, why the whole work cannot be put into the hands of young persons. ‘ The first is, that nine volumes of letters would become tiresome, from the repetitions indispensable in that kind of composition; and would encroach upon that time which ought to be devoted to other reading, and particularly to such branches of knowledge as constitute essential parts of a good education. Books which only serve to form the taste, ought to occupy only the second place; the first rank is due to books of pure instruction. An education is spoiled when the pupil prefers the pleasures of imagination to those of a cultivated reason. The great art of a preceptor consists in mingling the useful with the agreeable, —in combining one with the other, in such a manner, that the latter shall only discover itself to enhance the value of

the former. The second is, that a great number of these letters are improper for young persons. Two amiable women of wit and feeling, less united by the ties of blood and of a common interest than by that of friendship the most lively and the most sincere; two women educated in the great world, who discoursed familiarly of the events that passed, or of all that could interest them, in that busy and varying scene; who were eager to follow the different movements, to know the anecdotes of the court, to unravel the thread of intrigues, to understand all the little tricks, and to collect even the most trifling *bons-mots*—these women could, in the intimate communications of mutual confidence, give a loose to their natural gaiety; indulge themselves in light and sometimes harsh reflections; and communicate to each other circumstances of the most delicate nature, in letters which were not written with a view to publication. If we also recollect that these women were, the one a mother exceedingly tender, the other a daughter not less affectionate, we shall see that there must have been a freedom in their correspondence, which, though always decent, admitted many subjects less proper for youth. What was for them only a *jeu-d'esprit*, an agreeable pleasantry, or a consequence of the lively interest which each felt for the other, would perhaps be changed into poison for the young. The mind of a young person is as a crystal whose brightness and purity the slightest breath can tarnish; it is a vessel that cannot easily lose the odour of the first liquor that has been poured into it.

These letters are too well known, and their reputation is too well established, to need any additional criticism or praise. The editor has added to this selection grammatical notes, which cannot but be useful to young persons, for whom the volume is chiefly intended. The letters of madame de Maintenon form a very small part of the volume. Biographical sketches of both writers are affixed. We subjoin a few extracts.

‘Father Bourdaloue preached on Lady-day a sermon which transported every one; it was sufficiently forcible to make the courtiers tremble; never did an evangelical minister preach the Christian truths so nobly, or with such boldness. The object of the discourse was to prove that every power ought to be subject to the law, from the example of our Lord who was presented in the temple: in fine, my child, it was carried to the highest point of perfection; and certain parts were enforced as the apostle Paul would have enforced them.’

‘The archbishop of Rheims returned yesterday very rapidly from Saint Germain:—it was like a whirlwind. He thought himself a very great man; but his people think

themselves still greater. They passed through Nanterre, crying out, "Clear the way! clear the way!" They met a horseman—"Stand clear! stand clear!" The poor man would have retired to one side; but his horse would not; and the coach and six knocked down the poor man and his horse, and passed over them so completely, that the carriage was overturned. The man and horse, instead of amusing themselves with being crippled, rose up miraculously; and away they fled, whilst the servants of the archbishop, and the prelate himself, cried out, "Stop, stop that rascal, that he may have a hundred blows." The archbishop, in relating this, said, "If I could have caught the rascal, I would have broken his bones, and have cut off his ears."

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'Here is an anecdote which you may believe as if you had heard it yourself. The king said one morning, "I think, indeed, that we shall not be able to succour Philipsbourg; but I shall not the less be king of France." M. de Montausier,

Qui pour le pape ne diroit

Une chose qu'il ne croiroit,

replied, "It is true, Sir, you would still be king of France, even if you should lose Metz, Toul & Verdun, La Comté, and many other provinces beyond which your predecessors passed." Every one was silent; and the king very graciously answered, "I understand you, M. de Montausier; you mean to insinuate that my affairs are going on very badly; but I am not displeased at what you say; for I know how your heart is inclined towards me."

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'Providence conducts us with so much goodness through the different periods of our life, that we do not perceive our progress. This loss comes on easily, it is imperceptible, it is the shadow of the sun-dial whose motion we do not see. If, at twenty years of age, we could see in a mirror the face we shall have at three-score, we should be shocked at the contrast, and terrified at our own figure; but it is day by day that we advance: we are to-day as we were yesterday, and shall be to-morrow as we are to-day: so we go on without feeling it, and this is a miracle of that Providence which I adore.'

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'M. de Montausier has written a letter to Monseigneur upon the taking of Philipsbourg, which greatly pleases me. "Monseigneur, I do not compliment you upon the capture of Philipsbourg; you had a good army, bombs, cannon, and Vauban: neither shall I compliment you upon your valour; for that is an hereditary virtue in your family. But I rejoice that you are liberal, generous, humane, and that you know how to recompense the services of those who behave well; it is for this that I congratulate you."

The following letter is by madame de Maintenon, addressed to her brother. Our readers cannot but be pleased with it.

‘ We can only be unhappy by our own fault ; this shall always be my text, and my reply to your lamentations. Recollect, my dear brother, the voyage to America, the misfortunes of our father, of our infancy and our youth ; and you will bless Providence instead of murmuring against fortune. Ten years ago we were both very far below our present situation ; and our hopes were so feeble that we limited our wishes to a revenue of three thousand livres. At present we have four times that sum ; and our desires are not yet satisfied ! We enjoy that happy mediocrity which you have so often extolled ; let us be content. If possessions come to us, let us receive them from the hand of God, but let not our views be extravagant. We have every thing necessary and comfortable ; all the rest is avarice ; all these desires of greatness spring from a restless heart. Your debts are all paid, and you may live elegantly without contracting more. What have you to desire ? Must schemes of wealth and ambition occasion the loss of your repose and your health ? Read the life of St. Louis ; you will see how unequal the greatness of this world is to the desires of the human heart ; God only can satisfy them. I repeat it—you are only unhappy by your own fault. Your uneasiness destroys your health, which you ought to preserve, if it were only because I love you. Watch your temper : if you can render it less splenetic and less gloomy, you will have gained a great advantage. This is not the work of reflection only : exercise, amusement, and a regulated life, are necessary for the purpose. You cannot think well whilst your health is affected : when the body is debilitated, the mind is without vigour. Adieu ! write to me more frequently, and in a style less gloomy.’

*Tableau Historique et Politique de l'Administration de la République Française pendant l'Année 1797, des Causes qui ont amené la Révolution du 4 Septembre, et de ses Résultats.*

*Historical and Political View of the Administration of France during the Year 1797 ; with an Inquiry into the Causes and Effects of the Revolution of the 4th of September. By Sir Francis D'Ivernois. 8vo. Elmsly. 1798.*

THE citizen of Geneva finds, in the transactions of every year, sufficient resources for a new volume ; and those who have read his former publications will easily conceive what his opinion must be on the subjects which he discusses in this vo-

-lume. The end which he now proposes is, to demonstrate, 'by the confessions of the French themselves, that they are weakened by their conquests, and ruined by their robberies, and that they have delayed to this moment their catastrophe, only to render it more striking.' The confessions are speeches in the two councils; but, unfortunately for our writer, the approach to this catastrophe is made by the addition of fresh conquests, and a more imperious interference in the affairs of Europe. Throughout we may observe one fault (and a very common fault it is), that he reasons upon the actions of a revolutionary government, as if it were in a state of profound peace, undisturbed by foreign war or domestic factions. He makes no allowances for measures which a nation might be constrained to adopt; and, forgetful of his own republican sentiments, he seems to detest every thing republican in the French commonwealth. We might point out his propensity to exaggeration in the affairs of mandates and assignats. 'I now finish (he says) the history of assignats and mandates, of an unexampled robbery committed upon a whole nation, and favoured by all its citizens.' This robbery, however, had an example in an event which occurred some years ago in America; and, if all the citizens were pleased with it, the depredation could not be very dreadful. We must, however, make allowances for our author, who prognosticated the fall of the paper currency, as did every man who understood the subject; but he was unfortunate in associating with that fall the ruin of the republic. We were surprised that he should make this mistake, when we found that he considered the stoppage of the bank in our own country as a very fortunate event. The fact is, that kingdoms do not rise or fall by means of paper; and though, in a falling kingdom, paper necessarily falls with it, yet another state, whilst the paper is losing its value, may be increasing in strength.

We could not but smile at another fancy of this writer, that France was saved in 1792 by its fortified towns. He forgets, that the duke of Brunswick had passed the line of fortifications, and had nothing to oppose him in his march to Paris but the courage of his enemies; and, if the combined troops had not wasted their strength before Valenciennes, it is most probable, that they would have found the grave or captivity the reward of their indiscretion, long before they were in sight of the metropolis. The opinion of Machiavel, that money is not the sinew of war, we conceive to be just; and it is in vain that our author talks of the present expense of war, since the French have proved, that discipline and tactics are easily acquired, where the heart is firm, and that fortified towns make little resistance to soldiers who are inflamed with the real or even with the imaginary spirit of liberty.



The generous Germans, as they are called, are without doubt highly flattered by the compliment, that they were 'shedding their blood for the defence of religion, for the support of social order, and for the preservation of the equilibrium of the grand European republic.' These are pompous words: but a German prince had other thoughts, when he let out his men at so much a-head for this cause; and the miserable peasant, whose tactics had been beaten into him *à coup de canne*, had no other idea in his head, than the apprehension of military chastisement, if he did not follow his leader.

With regard to those Germans who have not yet taken an active part in the war, we do not think that they will be roused by the exhortations of the Genevese knight. 'To arms, brave Germans! to arms! to arms! Let this cry resound in the palaces of all your princes, and thence be re-echoed even to the cottage of the poor man; for even he has that at stake which is his only good—the consolations of religion.' We will suppose the poor of Germany, from remarks which we have personally made, to consist of about one fifth of the nation; and as they have nothing to fight for but their religion, which Christianity does not allow to be a subject for arms, they will most probably disregard this call. The other subjects of the state will be more attentive. 'Your all says our author, 'is at stake: your properties, your laws, your independence, your civilisation, the patrimony which you have inherited from your fathers, and, above all, that national morality which distinguishes you so honourably from other nations, and which would soon fall under the pestilential influence of French principles. May the preservation of so much happiness inflame the courage of your warriors! Rally under the standard of a new chief, since the old one has forsaken you; and, if the day of battle must come, show what the German nation can do, when it rises in a mass for the defence of every thing which is dear to man.'

We were better pleased with the remarks on lotteries.

'All the facts, which I have been able to collect in my travels, respecting the consequences of various taxes levied by the principal sovereigns of Europe, have convinced me, that the most judicious, as well as the most benevolent, is that which trebles, or sometimes raises tenfold, the price of spirituous liquors, and that the most pernicious of all, without controversy, is the tax on the poor, occasioned by those scandalous tables for Pharaoh, of which the rulers of states do not blush to make themselves the bankers. Although the English lotteries are much less pernicious than those which I have just mentioned, I do not know whether the British parliament can be entirely absolved, since it continues to have recourse to this disastrous mode of supply; and I dare to hope that

it will soon renounce it, on considering that the measures devised to prevent the lower classes from engaging in the lotteries have been always fruitless. We cannot too much lament, that some philosophic visitor of prisons, like Howard, has not endeavoured to obtain from the wretched inhabitants a confession of the first faults which brought them to misery and crimes. They will, it may be concluded, confess, that the hopes of great wealth were the first attractions which carried to the lottery-office the produce, first of their savings, afterwards of their thefts. A collection of such confessions would be doubly instructive, since it would enable the government to calculate, whether it is not obliged, as I believe it is, to defray in criminal proceedings, in prison expenses, in punishments, and on the police, far more than the trifling revenue derived from lotteries.'

There is more of declamation than of argument in this work; and the conclusions drawn by the author from facts, are not always just. For the contemplation of revolutionary causes and consequences, he has not a sound discerning eye, or a mind unwarped by the prejudices of party.

*Jesus Puer; Poëma Thomæ Cevæ. 8vo. Berlin.*

*The Boy Jesus; a Poem, by Thomas Ceva. Imported by De Boffe.*

TO give our readers an idea of the contents of this volume, we will translate with some degree of freedom a part of the author's prefatory address.

'That Jesus, while he was yet a child, gradually manifested his divinity to his countrymen of Nazareth, we are informed by Athanasius, the prelate Titus, Theodoret, St. Vincent, and others. This striking fact I thought proper to make the ground-work of an epic poem. I planned and arranged the subject in the following manner. The heavenly infant having returned from Egypt to his native country, the devil at first laboured to effect his destruction by open hostilities, and afterwards had recourse to artifice for preventing or obscuring the display of his divinity; but all such schemes were unsuccessful; for the Nazarenes detected the machinations of the evil spirit, and at length acknowledged, as God, the boy whose oracles had long kept them in suspense, and whose character had excited their love and admiration. I have thus given you, gentle reader, a rude sketch of my production, which, from the mixture of humble and illustrious characters, partakes both of the comic and heroic species of poetry.'

In the exordium, the poet invokes the aid of the Virgin Mary and her son, and solicits their guidance 'through places now first traversed by the muses of Latium'—

'Per loca nunc, primum Latii peragrata Camœnis.'

This passage is not consistent either with truth or with the author's remark in the preface, intimating that, in giving a poetical view of the merits of Christ, and of various particulars connected with that subject, he should follow the example of Vida and other writers, who, we know, made use of the Latin tongue in the pieces alluded to.

The Virgin, on her return to Nazareth from Egypt, is thus received.

'—— ubi Susannæ bona Virgo evasit in ædes,  
Hic fragor, hic strepitus, amplexus, oscula mille,  
Mille hilares voces, mixtumque sine ordine discors  
Undique murmur erat.'

The phrase *sine ordine discors* is inelegant and tautologous; and the whole passage is flat and unpoetical.—The writer adds,

'Nec viso littore nautæ,  
Nec genitrix nato, nec conjuge nupta recepto,  
Quem bello, aut pelago extinctum decepta putarat,  
Nec quidquid possunt læti sibi fingere noctu  
Insomnes vates, æquare hæc gaudia possint.  
O tandem post secula redux! o denique sospes  
Reddita lux orbæ patriæ, expectata tot annis!  
Ut formosa redis nil cœlo decolor illo!  
Quæ via, qui cursus, quæ fors inopina revexit?  
Ecce humeris curvis octogenaria conjux  
Alphæi, explicitis ulnis, edentula voces  
Non intellectas labiis conatur utrisque,  
Et gnatam (sic illa vocat) complexa fatigat.  
En Beroe, en veniens e torcularibus Abra,  
Musta recentia utraque manu lætissima portans,  
Cui puer hinc Ammon, hinc Ruben vestibus hærent.  
Mox Debora ascensu subit improvisa repente,  
Ingenti clamore ruens in-colla, lacertis  
Injectis hærens non extricabilis: ipsa  
Candidior nive Cissa latrans formosa catella  
Agnoscit reducem, et circum mille implicat orbis,  
Et vestes scalpit, genibusque audacula reptat.'

The appearance of Jesus, on this occasion, is compared to that of a rose blooming in the midst of snow.

'———— pulcherrimus Infans  
Stabat, ut in mediis nivibus rosa nata Decembri,  
Quam circum canæ glacies mirantur et imbres  
Vernantem, nec duram hiemem nimbosque timentem.'

The devil soon commences hostilities against the divine infant. The evil spirit is introduced to the reader by a curious simile.

‘Qualis formosum niveâ cervice catellum,  
Virgineo in gremio manibus quem comit eburnis  
Fœmina, sic meritum cernens dolet invidus, ore  
Allatratque rudi turpis quandoque molossus,  
Dilectus dominæ ille etiam, cum candidus olim,  
Et tener, et blandus fuerat; nunc vincula collo  
Gestantem absterrent mensis, et postibus arcent:  
Haud aliter Puerum cœlestem dum videt hostis  
Luridus, ipse etiam quondam, cum degeret astris,  
Delicium cœli; ringit, totusque veneno  
Livescit miser, et partes se versat in omnes,  
Lædere si tenerum queat, atque absunere letho.’

Here the devil is compared to a mastiff, who, when he was a puppy, had been fondled by his mistress, but was afterwards supplanted in her good graces by a young canine rival, who was therefore the object of his hatred. Our Saviour, caressed by his fond mother, is here typified by the lap-dog; a comparison which must be considered as derogatory from the dignity of his character and the divinity of his mission.

At a mournful meeting of the Nazarene matrons, the devil is discovered in the disguise of an old woman.

‘—Medios inter ploratus cuncta scelestus  
Ille explorator Stygius terrore repente,  
Ridiculoque metu implevit. Nam fœderat herba  
Ipse etiam in viridi lugens, spissoque nigroque  
Se abdiderat panno, viduæ ore, habituque Phenennæ,  
Ereptosque sibi geminos ululare nepotes  
Conabatur.’——

When his cloven foot appears, the women are at first terrified, but are soon encouraged by the Virgin to attack the enemy of her son.

‘Diriguere metu cunctæ; simul agmine factò  
Terga dabant: tenuit Virgo, excussoque pavore  
Obscœnam vetulam certatim murmure magno  
Sandaliis jactu alterno, saxisque petitam  
Turba puellarum insequitur.’

An account is given of a journey of Mary and the child to the abode of John the Baptist. Here they are exposed to danger from the enmity of Satan: but an angel is sent from

heaven to transport them through the air to Paradise. An engagement ensues between a celestial army and the followers of the devil; and the latter, as we might expect, are discomfited.

The progenitors of Christ, of the race of Abraham, repair to the place of his retreat from their subterranean abodes. They are entertained with a drama and other representations, and are then dismissed under angelic escort. The play is thus mentioned by our poet:

‘——procul ante ora augustum se tollit ad auras  
Pegma, pavimenti extrema de parte, corusco  
Sipario obductum. Post velum scena, chorique,  
Actoresque latent Genii, pulcherrima pubes,  
In seram noctem spectacula mira daturi  
Hospitibus Divis. Titulus de fornice pendet  
*Oscula Justitiæ, et Pacis.* Jamque aurea rite  
Cymbala proludunt chordis: jam pompa latentis  
Se reteggit scenæ: jamque alta silentia poscit  
Sibilus. En sensim subducitur aëre velum.  
Proh! quæ immortalis species! quæ regia! quæ lux!  
Quæ domus ætheria! Hæc qualis sedet ardua gemmis  
In solio regina nitens! quot fulgurat astris  
Intextum syrma aërium! quas jam dabit illa  
Fronte gravi voces! ut plena silentia sancto  
Terrore! ut tragicis dictis jam præparet ora!

‘Argumentum operis, Majestas læsa Tonantis:  
Justitia hinc acuens iras; Pax flebilis illinc  
Exorans veniam. Nodum Sapientia solvit;  
Proponitque, inter Numenque Hominemque, sequestrum  
Unigenam, nostro velatum corpore Numen.  
Discutitur, placet inventum: suprema Potestas  
Commissum sibi spondet opus. Sic lœte dirempta  
Acceptis hinc atque hinc conditionibus æquis,  
Oscula Justitiæ et Pacis spectacula claudunt.’

After the return of the Virgin and Jesus from the garden of Eden, they remain for some time in tranquillity. Suddenly the child disappears. The sensations of his mother, when she first misses him, are tamely described:

‘—————Tum se,  
Tum comites circum, et latus hinc atque hinc desertum,  
Atque manum vacuam cœlesti pignore sensit.’

The following lines are more spirited, but are not very elegant:

‘Quo non jactatæ voces, repetitaque Jesu  
Nomina, per muros pagi, per frondea lustra,

Illatque faces? quos non adiere penates  
 Mœrentes sociæ per opaca silentia noctis?  
 Heu quid agant? quo se vertant? namque undique stellis  
 Tempore jam longo cœli convexa refulgent;  
 Nec fas nocturnum per iter vestigia retro  
 Ferre per obscuros calles, perque avia cœca:  
 Iæ vetant trepidæ matres, arcentque volentem.  
 Semianimis, lugens, et acuta cuspide fixa,  
 Postquam alte ingruerat sero expectantibus umbra,  
 Orba suo infelix Nato, caput obsita velo,  
 Singultusque ciens bona Virgo in tecta redibat:  
 Tota sequebatur largo vicina fletu.'

The Nazarenes being in great affliction at the loss of the child, God sends an angel to restore him to their wishes. The arts of Satan are baffled; and Jesus enters Jerusalem in solemn procession. On this joyful occasion—

———' Campi, nemora avia, valles  
 Carminibus vaturn resonant: O splendor Olympi!  
 O lux in tenebris exorta! o Legisfer orbis  
 Expectate diu! o nostros miserare labores!  
 Parce Pater, parce Omnipotens. Mens omnibus cœstro.  
 Afflatur divo, Regemque, Hominemque, Deumque  
 Paciferumque vocant, et sanctum Nûmen adorant.  
 Quaque iter est, ramos curvat subeuntibus arbos:  
 Desuper omnigenûm cernuntur nubila Divûm  
 Plena choris. Alto Pater ipse e culmine mundi  
 Aspicit e folio reduces; atque omnis ab astris  
 Cœlestûm populus, portas quoque, tecta quoque summa,  
 Et muros pagi, et turres insederat. Ipse  
 Ætherios inter comites pulcherrimus omnes,  
 Hoste triumphato, Jesseius it Puer, instar  
 Sideris eoi; signant vestigia acanthi,  
 Mixtaque parthenio bellis, convolvulus, iris,  
 Et crocei flores campi. Sic ille redibat;  
 Nazareis que suis, post tot discrimina, lucem.  
 Auroramque, redux materna in tecta, ferebat.'

So ends the poem of Ceva. It is not a performance of extraordinary merit. It does not abound with sublime or elegant effusions; but is, for the most part, tasteless and uninteresting. It would, however, be illiberal and uncandid to deny that various passages are worthy of the approbation of the scholar,

*L'Institutrice et son Elève; ou Dialogues à l'Usage des Jeunes Demoiselles. 2 Vols. 12mo. 1798.*

*The Instruētress and her Pupil; or, Dialogues for the Use of Young Ladies. Dulau,*

THIS work is the production of M. le Noir, and is intended as a continuation of the *Companion of Youth* (*la Compagne de la Jeunesse*), which he had before published for the instruction of females. It is adapted to the education of young ladies for the four last years of their course of study. 'I treat not (he says in the preface) either of arts or of sciences. My purpose is to instruct young persons in the duties of life—to form their hearts to the love of virtue by a slow but sure progress. My work may therefore be considered as a course of practical morality.'

The dialogues are well calculated for the end which the author had in view. Modern barbarisms are avoided in the style; and the advice given is prudent and judicious. In the last dialogue some didactic verses are introduced, from a work attributed to Fenelon. They resemble the golden verses of the Pythagoreans.

*Quelques Observations d'un Cosmopolite sur le Projet de fermer le Weser et l'Elbe au Commerce de la Grande-Bretagne. 4to. 1797.*

*Some Remarks, by a Citizen of the World, on the Project of excluding the British Nation from the Commerce of the Elbe and the Weser.*

THE Cosmopolite examines, in a few pages, the French scheme of depriving Great Britain of the advantages of trade and all other intercourse with Germany. If it should be practicable, it would, he says, be more prejudicial to other nations than to the English; for, 'of the merchandise transported from England to the Elbe and the Weser, seven-eighths are not upon the account of the English, but of the subjects of different continental states.' He urges a dereliction of the scheme, not only on the grounds of reason and equity, but from the considerations of interest and policy. The French, in their public conduct, are more actuated by the two last motives than by the two first; but, as they are strongly inclined to indulge their animosity against our nation, they may perhaps endeavour to enforce such a measure, regardless of the jealousy or offence which it may give to other powers.

# OCCASIONAL RETROSPECT

OF

## FOREIGN LITERATURE.

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### FRANCE.

THE French continue to publish a variety of works. The sciences are more eagerly cultivated among them than we might expect from the unsettled state of their affairs; and the *belles lettres*, with the exception of some branches, are as much the objects of pursuit as in the days of their monarchy. But our catalogue of their publications must still be imperfect.

Principes de la Philosophie du Botaniste, &c. Elements of the Philosophy of the Botanist, 2 vols. 8vo. Paris, 1798. Joly Le-Clerc is the author of this work. It is composed on philosophical principles, and will prove useful to the students of a pleasing science.

Nosographie Philosophique, &c. Philosophical Nosography or Nosology, by Professor Pinel.—This physician has applied analytical investigation to the medical science, not wholly without success.

Analyse Raisonnée du Systeme de Brown, &c. A Critical Analysis of the System of Brown, 8vo.—Dr. Schiferti supports the system of our countryman by various remarks.

Tableau Élémentaire, &c. An Elementary View of the History of Animals.—M. Cuvier prepared this work for the use of the central schools; and he deserves praise for the execution of his task.

Origines Gauloises, &c. Gallic Origins traced, by La-Tour d'Auvergne-Corret, 8vo.—This writer endeavours to prove, that most of the nations of Europe and Asia are of Celtic descent; but he is not very able or successful in his investigations.

Mémoire et Projet, &c. A Memoir and Plan for the Restoration of the French Pantheon.—The architect La-Barre evinces, in this plan, some degree of judgment.

La Politique d'Aristote, &c. The Politics of Aristotle, or the Science of Government; translated from the Greek,



and illustrated with Notes, by Champagne, 2 vols. 8vo. 1799. —In the introduction, M. Champagne has given an analysis of the work; and, in the notes, he has entered into a wide field of useful disquisition. The translation, though not so accurate as that of Dr. Gillies, is far from being contemptible.

Vie de Julius Agricola. The Life of Agricola, translated from Tacitus, 12mo. —This excellent piece of biography appears to as much advantage in a French dress, as those who are acquainted with the important difference between that and the Latin language can expect.

Les Artistes. The Artists, a Comedy in Verse. —When this piece was represented on the stage, it was very unfavorably received; but the author (Colin d'Harleville) was not discouraged from printing it. Though some parts have merit, it is not, upon the whole, a good play.

Consolations, &c. Roucher's Consolations in his Captivity, 2 vols. 8vo. —The letters and other productions of this unhappy 'victim of decemviral tyranny,' as he is called in the title-page, are pleasing and interesting.

Observations, &c. Remarks on the Beautiful and Sublime. —We have here a French translation of a performance (by Kant) of no great merit.

Les Emigrés justifiés. A Justification of the Conduct of the French Emigrants, by F. T——d. —This vindicator is too intemperate in his effusions against the republicans, to be likely to obtain pardon for his friends.

Œuvres Morales, &c. Works of Morality and Amusement, by Duclos, 4 vols. 8vo. —This writer excels in works of the former kind, more than in those of the latter description. His travels in Italy form a part of this collection.

## HOLLAND.

Jan Hendrik van Swinden Lykrede, &c. An Eulogium upon Peter Nieuwland, 8vo. —M. Nieuwland was an able cultivator of the sciences connected with the mathematics; and his attainments in several branches of polite literature were not contemptible.

Adres en Vertoog, &c. A Scheme for the Improvement of Medicine and Chirurgery, in Holland, by D. Heilbron, 8vo. Hague. —This scheme was presented to the national assembly of the Batavian republic; but that body did not fully approve it.

## SWITZERLAND.

Versuch eines Handbuchs, &c. Sketch of a Statistic Manual relative to Switzerland, 8vo. Zürich, 1796. Pre-

feffor Fäfi, fon of the late geographer of that name, has here given a variety of useful information.

Archiv für Staatswissenschaft und Gesetzgebung. Archives of Politics and Legislation, vols. I. II. Zürich.—This publication contains the effence of a number of treatifes, arranged in alphabetical order. The compiler is M. von Egger, whose industry feems to be greater than his judgment.

## G E R M A N Y.

S. F. N. Mori *Prælectiones Exegeticæ in tres Johannis Epistolas*. Explanatory Lectures upon the three Epistles of John. Leipzig, 1796.

Die Republik, &c. An Account of the Republic of the Grisons, by Lehmann. Magdeburg.—The same writer has also published a description of the Valteline.

Nachricht von der Britischen, &c. An Account of the British Embassy to China, by J. C. Huttner. Berlin.—M. Huttner was in the *suite* of earl Macartney; and he had therefore an opportunity of procuring authentic information, with regard to the circumstances which he has mentioned in this volume. In some particulars this performance will serve as a supplement to the work of sir G. Staunton.

Neuestes Gemälde von Wien. The latest View of Vienna, 1797.—In this volume is a comprehensive statistic account of that great metropolis.

Briefe über Schweiz, &c. Letters relative to Switzerland and Italy, 2 vols. 8vo.—These epistles, written by a son of the celebrated Jacobi, are entertaining rather than profound.

Parentalia in Memoriam Friderici Gulielmi II. Borussiae Regis, &c. Funeral Offerings of Praise to the Memory of the late King of Prussia. Halle, 1797.

Seiner Königlichen Majestät Friedrik Wilhelm dem III. bey der Thronbesteigung allerunterthänigst Überreicht von F. Genz. An Humble Address to Frederic William III. on his Accession to the Prussian Throne. Berlin, 1797.

Erzählungen von Albert Klebe. Tales by Klebe, vol. I. 8vo. Magdeburg, 1797.—In this volume we find an interesting Polish story, entitled Julia Kanowska and Alexander Wienki.

Grundlinien, &c. Outlines of a Theory of the Art of Theatrical Performance, by M. von Einsiedel. Leipzig.—This is a pleasing sketch; and it will be followed by a larger work.

Allgemeine Geschichte, &c. A general History of the Culture and Literature of Modern Europe, vol. I. Göttingen.—This history, which proceeds from the pen of M.

Eichhorn, begins about the year 1100. The first period extends to 1450; the second will involve two hundred years from that date; and the third will reach to the present times. This volume is well written; and the information which it contains is drawn from the best sources.

Aristophanis Ranæ. The Comedy of the Frogs, by Aristophanes, vol. I. 8vo.—M. Höpfner has here given the text and the *scholia*: his commentary will follow.

Unterhaltungen, &c. The Meditations of the Emperor Antoninus, translated into German.—M. Reche has evinced his diligence and judgement on this occasion; and, to an accurate translation, has added many illustrative remarks.

## S W E D E N.

Inledning til Kännedom, &c. An Introduction to the Antiquities of Sweden, 8vo. Lunden, 1797.—To Sjöborg are antiquaries indebted for this work, in which he has well treated the subject.

Fauna Suecica. The Swedish Fauna, by Paykull, vol. I. Upsal.—This volume comprehends a description of insects of the beetle kind.

## D E N M A R K.

Arzneymittellehre, &c. The Materia Medica of Minerals, by Professor Tode, 8vo. vol. I. Copenhagen, 1797.—Dr. Tode is distinguished by his medical learning and ability. This work is well digested; and it contains important information.

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A R E V I E W  
OF  
P U B L I C A F F A I R S,  
FROM

the Beginning of MAY, to the End of AUGUST, 1798.

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G R E A T - B R I T A I N .

THE trials for high treason, which have occurred in this kingdom during the present war, seem to have more strongly attracted the public attention than those of any former period. To the extraordinary warmth of party zeal, and bitterness of animosity, which we have witnessed since the French revolution, this anxiety may be chiefly attributed. The supposed prevalence of a republican spirit among a considerable part of the British nation, has given great alarm to the supporters of the existing government; and they wish for the exemplary punishment of those who have instilled into the minds of their countrymen principles so repugnant to the constitution. But their zeal has been so undiscerning, that they have confounded the advocates of temperate constitutional reform with the partisans of wild and indiscriminate innovation. The former have been said to be as dangerous as the latter; for their professions are represented as insincere and hypocritical; but such assertions may be confi-

dered as calumnious charges, proceeding from the rancor of party rather than from just grounds of suspicion. *Reform*, says a ministerial senator, is synonymous with *revolution*; and those who profess the *one*, aim at the *other*. However we may be inclined to controvert this opinion, we must allow that it is very prevalent. Many of those who entertain it would probably have rejoiced, if the individuals who were tried in London upon a charge of treason, in the year 1794, had been condemned and put to death on no stronger evidence than was then adduced. But the moderate, the liberal, and the judicious, applauded the humanity and the patriotism displayed by the jurors in their decisions upon those trials. The zealots, however, continued to stigmatise as delinquents those who were pronounced innocent by a legal verdict; and, when Mr. O'Connor and other suspected persons were apprehended at Margate, the hopes of vengeance, which a candid jury had disappointed, revived with additional strength.

Though the apprehension of the supposed mal-contents took place so early as the 28th of February, their trials did not commence before the 21st of May. The judges Buller, Heath, and Laurence, presided on the occasion. After some animadversions on the unjustifiable behaviour of the *reverend* Arthur Young, who had endeavoured to prejudice the minds of several of the summoned jurymen against the prisoners ('with a view that they should go into court *avowedly determined* in their verdict, *no matter what the evidence*\*'), the selection of jurors took place amidst various challenges both from the crown and the prisoners; and the attorney-general stated the charges adduced against the latter, and the grounds on which the accusation rested. It could be proved, he said, that James O'Coigly, John Allen, and Jeremiah Leary, had repaired in February to an inn at Margate, where they were joined by Arthur O'Connor and John Binns; that O'Coigly and the two last-mentioned individuals assumed names which did not belong to them; and that Binns had previously bar-

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\* These words occur in a letter written by Mr. Young.

gained, both at Whitstable and at Deal, for a vessel to convey him and his friends to one of the ports of France or of Holland. The meeting of all the five at Margate, he added, seemed to be preconcerted, though they pretended that they were not acquainted with each other. When they were apprehended, a pocket-book belonging to O'Coigly was found, containing an address from the 'secret committee of England to the executive directory of France.'

In this paper the *committee* requested the *great nation* to 'pour forth its gigantic force,' that an oppressed people might 'carol forth the praises of France at the altar of liberty;' promised that Englishmen would be ready to second the efforts of the French; and stated, that the system of borrowing, 'which had hitherto enabled our tyrants to disturb the peace of a whole world,' was at an end; that disaffection prevailed both in the army and navy; and that Englishmen, seeing themselves 'every day bereft of some part of the poor fragment of democracy which they had hitherto enjoyed,' had become sensible of the necessity of preparing a new constitution. Not only the partisans of the ministry, but the parliamentary members of opposition, were censured in this address. It was said to be the 'interest of each faction to keep the people in the dark;' and the anti-ministerial declaimers were represented as unworthy of confidence, since, 'under the semblance of moderate reform,' they 'only wished to climb into power.'

Of the treasonable views of the framers of this address, no doubt, said the attorney-general, could be entertained; and, though it was not absolutely certain that all the prisoners were acquainted with its purport, it was highly probable that they were. He read some papers, which, he thought, tended to prove that O'Connor, in particular, intended to go to France, and that he was privy to the scheme of sending or conveying the address to that country. He also produced a paper from which it appeared that O'Coigly had before visited France; and, referring to a passage in the address,

which intimated that the citizen who would deliver it had, on a former occasion, communicated to the directory the sentiments of the committee, he thought it reasonable to conclude, from all the circumstances, that O'Coigly meditated an immediate voyage to France as the bearer of the traitorous invitation.

The witnesses for the crown were then examined at considerable length; and, on the following day, Mr. Plomer, in an elaborate speech, defended O'Connor, rather than any of the other prisoners, against the charges adduced. He spoke of him as a man who, by his talents and good qualities, had acquired the friendship and esteem of persons of great merit and distinction, and who, though an advocate for particular reforms, had never shown himself hostile to the constitution. He denied that his client had the least connexion with the political societies established for the promotion of pure reform or for worse purposes; and he ridiculed the idea of his concern in the alleged invitation to the French, not only from the absurdity and falsehood of various parts of the address, but from the great improbability of his concurring in a paper which pointed out, as betrayers of the cause of liberty, and as marks for the vengeance of the foe, the very men with whom he had lived in habits of cordial intimacy. He admitted, that O'Connor was desirous of quitting the kingdom; but affirmed, that no *proof* existed of his intention of repairing to France to solicit an invasion from the enemy, and that even a *presumption* of such criminality was too unreasonable to be cherished by persons of any candor or liberality.

When Mr. Gurney and other barristers had harangued the court in behalf of Binns, Allen, and Leary, some witnesses were brought forward with a view of invalidating the charges; and the character of Mr. O'Connor was represented in a very favorable light by the earls of Suffolk and Thanet, messieurs Fox, Sheridan, Erskine, and other gentlemen of the anti-ministerial party. The eloquence of Mr. Dallas was then

exerted in the defence of the accused persons ; and O'Coigly, speaking for himself, declared that he ' never was the bearer of any letter or message to the directory of France,' and that the ' absurd and ridiculous' address to which the counsel had referred ' was not his paper.' Sir Francis Buller summed up the evidence in a fair and accurate manner ; and the jury, after some deliberation, declared O'Coigly guilty, but acquitted the four other prisoners.

The judge had no sooner pronounced sentence of death upon O'Coigly, than a disturbance arose. Mr. O'Connor was preparing to quit the court, when some civil officers stopped him. Some of the spectators interposing in his behalf, soldiers rushed in ; blows were interchanged ; and general confusion prevailed. Tranquillity, however, was soon restored ; and, it being intimated to O'Connor, that he could not be liberated, as a warrant for his arrest upon another charge, dated on the 22d of March, had been signed by the duke of Portland, he was re-conducted to prison.

As the evidence of the guilt of O'Coigly was sufficiently strong, it was not to be expected that he would receive a pardon. On the 7th of June, he was conveyed to Pennenden heath, near Maidstone ; and, after solemn declarations of his innocence, he was hanged till life seemed totally extinguished, and was then decapitated. He was the son of an Irish farmer ; and not being wholly illiterate, had been ordained a priest of the Romish church. He entered into the views of the malcontents of Ireland, and, when he was in danger of being seized, came over to England, where he was so closely watched, that he could not execute (what we may fairly conclude to have been) his intentions of repairing to France, and joining the enemies of his sovereign.

The case of Mr. O'Connor occasioned some observations in both houses of parliament. Those which lord Holland made in the house of peers tended to accuse the ministry of having infringed a clause in the late bill for the suspension of the *habeas-corpus* act, by which it was ordained, that persons who



were in custody at the time of its enactment should be tried as if no such bill had passed. The lord-chancellor replied, that the clause did not preclude the government from detaining Mr. O'Connor for an offence distinct from that for which he was in custody at the time in question.—In the other house, Mr. St.-John entered into a detail of the cases both of Arthur and Roger O'Connor, and animadverted on the injustice of detaining those individuals as prisoners; but a motion which he made on the subject was rejected.

Of the debates which occurred between the beginning of May and the close of the session, some were uninteresting. Among other subjects of discussion, the nature of the bill for the redemption of the land-tax \* was repeatedly investigated. The chancellor of the exchequer proposed, that an alteration should be made in favor of the proprietor of the land, who, if he should be inclined to purchase the tax with which it was burthened, might complete his bargain by the transfer of stock productive (in its annual dividend) of a tenth part beyond the amount of the impost; but that a third person who should become a purchaser should, according to the original plan, be required to add a fifth part. This point will be perfectly clear to every one of our readers, if we state, that, where an owner of land pays for it a tax of fifteen pounds *per annum*, he may redeem it with stock which will produce sixteen pounds ten shillings in the year; while another individual who may purchase a tax to that amount, will be obliged to give in exchange a dividend of eighteen pounds *per annum*. The proposal was adopted by the house; but the bill was opposed by lord Sheffield, sir John Sinclair, and other members; and Mr. Hussey lamented that, instead of regulating the land-tax upon equitable principles, the house should be disposed to perpetuate the inequality of that partial impost. In the upper house, the political veteran lord Thurlow, and the juvenile orator lord Holland, condemned the plan both in principle and in detail. It was

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\* See the 569th page of our last Appendix.

plausibly defended by the lords Auckland and Grenville, and sanctioned by a great majority.

A debate which arose from a motion respecting a bill for more effectually manning the navy, led to a duel between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Tierney. When it was proposed by the former, on the 25th of May, that the protections against being forced into the service should be suspended, and that a bill for that purpose should pass through all its stages in the course of that day, the latter objected to such unnecessary precipitation, and hinted at the necessity of watching all the proceedings of the minister with a jealous eye, lest the small remains of liberty should be wrested from the people. Mr. Pitt replied, that his ideas of liberty were very different from those of Mr. Tierney, if this objector considered every measure of national defence as hostile to the freedom of the subject; and he added, that the motive for opposing the present application could be no other than a desire of *impeding the service and defence of the country*. Resenting this imputation, Mr. Tierney appealed to the chair; and the speaker declared, that, if such language had been used, it was unparliamentary and disorderly; but Mr. Pitt disdained the idea of explanation or apology. The bill quickly passed through both houses; but the animosity of the two members did not end with the debate. Mr. Pitt, being challenged by Mr. Tierney, met him on Putney heath; and a duel ensued; but no injury was received by either of the gentlemen.

*Men of honor*, as the advocates for single combat style themselves, would undoubtedly have censured the minister, if he had not accepted the challenge of the person whom he had offended; and they would also, we think, have blamed Mr. Tierney if he had not insisted either on an apology or an hostile meeting. But it certainly was not necessary for either of the disputants to proceed to extremities, merely to avoid the imputation of cowardice. Allowance should be made for the freedom of debate; and, even if a member should, in a very reprehensible degree, transgress the limits of decorum, the cool dignity of contempt is the best answer to his intemperance,

The licentiousness of the editors of anti-ministerial newspapers being a frequent subject of complaint among the friends of the court, the attorney-general undertook the task of checking this abuse of the liberty of the press by a new bill, calculated to *fix responsibility*, and prevent an evasion of punishment for seditious or libellous paragraphs. This bill, said the framer of it, would *restore* the liberty of the press, and secure it against 'non-responsible licentiousness.' Other members, however, condemned the bill as having a very different tendency; but the opposers of the measure could not prevent its adoption.

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troops became impracticable ; and, the next morning, they were attacked by a far superior number of republicans. They fought for some time with great intrepidity, animated by the example of their commander, who was severely wounded in the action. At length, they were obliged to surrender themselves prisoners of war, to the number of above 1100 individuals. The killed, wounded, and missing, were about 150. We shall make no other remark on this expedition, than that its success and advantages have been greatly exaggerated.

Before we enter upon other parts of our general survey, the alacrity of the higher and middling classes in Great-Britain, in forming defensive associations, must be mentioned with that applause which is due to patriotic zeal. But we by no means concur with those prejudiced and illiberal men who consider a reluctance to arming as a mark of disaffection, and represent themselves as the only true friends of their country.

## I R E L A N D.

The commotions of the Hibernian kingdom, which might perhaps have been prevented by early prudence, at length assumed the complexion of treason and rebellion. The malcontent leaders, without waiting for such assistance as the French might be disposed to afford them, resolved to have recourse to arms for the assertion of their supposed rights. They formed a plan for an attack of the friends of government in the chief seat of their power, the metropolis of the kingdom. While they were preparing for the execution of this bold scheme, some of them were apprehended and imprisoned. Lord Edward Fitzgerald, being discovered at a house in Dublin, fiercely resisted those who attempted to seize him; but, being wounded in the conflict, he was overpowered and taken into custody. The agitation and anxiety of his mind increasing the ill effect of his wounds, he did not long linger in prison.

As the critical state of affairs required great vigilance and precaution, the proceedings of the government were proportioned to the danger. The 23d of May was the day appointed for the rebellious attack of the capital; but the strong measures which were adopted prevented the execution of that scheme. Early on the 24th, however, about 1000 men, furnished with pikes and musquets, approached the town of Naas, and made an assault upon the king's troops. They fought with spirit, though not with perseverance. Being firmly opposed, they fled with precipitation. Above 100 of them were killed. In another engagement, on the hills of Kilcullen, a greater number fell. Skirmishes, in some of which the insurgents had the advantage, occurred on the same day in various parts.

The open hostilities of the disaffected party excited such resentment, that a resolution was hastily adopted by the lord-lieutenant and council, for the summary punishment of the rebels and their assistants by the cruelties of martial law. A proclamation to that effect was officially announced. When it was under consideration in the house of commons, colonel Maxwell recommended an extension of the same code to the persons who had been imprisoned on suspicion of treasonable guilt. Other members, whose zeal was equally warm, wished for the exercise of a rigor which they affected to deem necessary; but lord Castlereagh deprecated the measure, justly observing, that it would brand the administration of the viceroy with the imputation of cruelty, and reduce it to the same degraded and sanguinary level with that government which aimed at the destruction of our happy constitution. The house did not acquiesce in the colonel's proposals, but merely sanctioned the proclamation.

It cannot be expected that we should detail every action between the rebels and the king's forces: it will be sufficient for our narrow limits to mention the more important engagements. Near Dunlavin, 3000 of the insurgents were encountered by a detachment of militia and yeomanry, and

dered as calumnious charges, proceeding from the rancor of party rather than from just grounds of suspicion. *Reform*, says a ministerial senator, is synonymous with *revolution*; and those who profess the *one*, aim at the *other*. However we may be inclined to controvert this opinion, we must allow that it is very prevalent. Many of those who entertain it would probably have rejoiced, if the individuals who were tried in London upon a charge of treason, in the year 1794, had been condemned and put to death on no stronger evidence than was then adduced. But the moderate, the liberal, and the judicious, applauded the humanity and the patriotism displayed by the jurors in their decisions upon those trials. The zealots, however, continued to stigmatise as delinquents those who were pronounced innocent by a legal verdict; and, when Mr. O'Connor and other suspected persons were apprehended at Margate, the hopes of vengeance, which a candid jury had disappointed, revived with additional strength.

Though the apprehension of the supposed mal-contents took place so early as the 28th of February, their trials did not commence before the 21st of May. The judges Buller, Heath, and Laurence, presided on the occasion. After some animadversions on the unjustifiable behaviour of the *reverend* Arthur Young, who had endeavoured to prejudice the minds of several of the summoned jurymen against the prisoners ('with a view that they should go into court *avowedly determined* in their verdict, *no matter what the evidence*\*'), the selection of jurors took place amidst various challenges both from the crown and the prisoners; and the attorney-general stated the charges adduced against the latter, and the grounds on which the accusation rested. It could be proved, he said, that James O'Coigly, John Allen, and Jeremiah Leary, had repaired in February to an inn at Margate, where they were joined by Arthur O'Connor and John Binns; that O'Coigly and the two last-mentioned individuals assumed names which did not belong to them; and that Binns had previously bar-

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In this paper the *committee* requested the *great nation* to 'pour forth its gigantic force,' that an oppressed people might 'carol forth the praises of France at the altar of liberty;' promised that Englishmen would be ready to second the efforts of the French; and stated, that the system of borrowing, 'which had hitherto enabled our tyrants to disturb the peace of a whole world,' was at an end; that disaffection prevailed both in the army and navy; and that Englishmen, seeing themselves 'every day bereft of some part of the poor fragment of democracy which they had hitherto enjoyed,' had become sensible of the necessity of preparing a new constitution. Not only the partisans of the ministry, but the parliamentary members of opposition, were censured in this address. It was said to be the 'interest of each faction to keep the people in the dark;' and the anti-ministerial declaimers were represented as unworthy of confidence, since, 'under the semblance of moderate reform,' they 'only wished to climb into power.'

Of the treasonable views of the framers of this address, no doubt, said the attorney-general, could be entertained; and, though it was not absolutely certain that all the prisoners were acquainted with its purport, it was highly probable that they were. He read some papers, which, he thought, tended to prove that O'Connor, in particular, intended to go to France, and that he was privy to the scheme of sending or conveying the address to that country. He also produced a paper from which it appeared that O'Coigly had before visited France; and, referring to a passage in the address,



which intimated that the citizen who would deliver it had, on a former occasion, communicated to the directory the sentiments of the committee, he thought it reasonable to conclude, from all the circumstances, that O'Coigly meditated an immediate voyage to France as the bearer of the traitorous invitation.

The witnesses for the crown were then examined at considerable length; and, on the following day, Mr. Plomer, in an elaborate speech, defended O'Connor, rather than any of the other prisoners, against the charges adduced. He spoke of him as a man who, by his talents and good qualities, had acquired the friendship and esteem of persons of great merit and distinction, and who, though an advocate for particular reforms, had never shown himself hostile to the constitution. He denied that his client had the least connexion with the political societies established for the promotion of pure reform or for worse purposes; and he ridiculed the idea of his concern in the alleged invitation to the French, not only from the absurdity and falsehood of various parts of the address, but from the great improbability of his concurring in a paper which pointed out, as betrayers of the cause of liberty, and as marks for the vengeance of the foe, the very men with whom he had lived in habits of cordial intimacy. He admitted, that O'Connor was desirous of quitting the kingdom; but affirmed, that no *proof* existed of his intention of repairing to France to solicit an invasion from the enemy, and that even a *presumption* of such criminality was too unreasonable to be cherished by persons of any candor or liberality.

When Mr. Gurney and other barristers had harangued the court in behalf of Binns, Allen, and Leary, some witnesses were brought forward with a view of invalidating the charges; and the character of Mr. O'Connor was represented in a very favorable light by the earls of Suffolk and Thanet, messieurs Fox, Sheridan, Erskine, and other gentlemen of the anti-ministerial party. The eloquence of Mr. Dallas was then

exerted in the defence of the accused persons ; and O'Coigly, speaking for himself, declared that he ' never was the bearer of any letter or message to the directory of France,' and that the ' absurd and ridiculous' address to which the counsel had referred ' was not his paper.' Sir Francis Buller summed up the evidence in a fair and accurate manner ; and the jury, after some deliberation, declared O'Coigly guilty, but acquitted the four other prisoners.

The judge had no sooner pronounced sentence of death upon O'Coigly, than a disturbance arose. Mr. O'Connor was preparing to quit the court, when some civil officers stopped him. Some of the spectators interposing in his behalf, soldiers rushed in ; blows were interchanged ; and general confusion prevailed. Tranquillity, however, was soon restored ; and, it being intimated to O'Connor, that he could not be liberated, as a warrant for his arrest upon another charge, dated on the 22d of March, had been signed by the duke of Portland, he was re-conducted to prison.

As the evidence of the guilt of O'Coigly was sufficiently strong, it was not to be expected that he would receive a pardon. On the 7th of June, he was conveyed to Pennenden heath, near Maidstone ; and, after solemn declarations of his innocence, he was hanged till life seemed totally extinguished, and was then decapitated. He was the son of an Irish farmer ; and not being wholly illiterate, had been ordained a priest of the Romish church. He entered into the views of the malcontents of Ireland, and, when he was in danger of being seized, came over to England, where he was so closely watched, that he could not execute (what we may fairly conclude to have been) his intentions of repairing to France, and joining the enemies of his sovereign.

The case of Mr. O'Connor occasioned some observations in both houses of parliament. Those which lord Holland made in the house of peers tended to accuse the ministry of having infringed a clause in the late bill for the suspension of the *habeas-corpus* act, by which it was ordained, that persons who

were in custody at the time of its enactment should be tried as if no such bill had passed. The lord-chancellor replied, that the clause did not preclude the government from detaining Mr. O'Connor for an offence distinct from that for which he was in custody at the time in question.—In the other house, Mr. St.-John entered into a detail of the cases both of Arthur and Roger O'Connor, and animadverted on the injustice of detaining those individuals as prisoners; but a motion which he made on the subject was rejected.

Of the debates which occurred between the beginning of May and the close of the session, some were uninteresting. Among other subjects of discussion, the nature of the bill for the redemption of the land-tax \* was repeatedly investigated. The chancellor of the exchequer proposed, that an alteration should be made in favor of the proprietor of the land, who, if he should be inclined to purchase the tax with which it was burthened, might complete his bargain by the transfer of stock productive (in its annual dividend) of a tenth part beyond the amount of the impost; but that a third person who should become a purchaser should, according to the original plan, be required to add a fifth part. This point will be perfectly clear to every one of our readers, if we state, that, where an owner of land pays for it a tax of fifteen pounds *per annum*, he may redeem it with stock which will produce sixteen pounds ten shillings in the year; while another individual who may purchase a tax to that amount, will be obliged to give in exchange a dividend of eighteen pounds *per annum*. The proposal was adopted by the house; but the bill was opposed by lord Sheffield, sir John Sinclair, and other members; and Mr. Hussey lamented that, instead of regulating the land-tax upon equitable principles, the house should be disposed to perpetuate the inequality of that partial impost. In the upper house, the political veteran lord Thurlow, and the juvenile orator lord Holland, condemned the plan both in principle and in detail. It was

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plausibly defended by the lords Auckland and Grenville, and sanctioned by a great majority.

A debate which arose from a motion respecting a bill for more effectually manning the navy, led to a duel between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Tierney. When it was proposed by the former, on the 25th of May, that the protections against being forced into the service should be suspended, and that a bill for that purpose should pass through all its stages in the course of that day, the latter objected to such unnecessary precipitation, and hinted at the necessity of watching all the proceedings of the minister with a jealous eye, lest the small remains of liberty should be wrested from the people. Mr. Pitt replied, that his ideas of liberty were very different from those of Mr. Tierney, if this objector considered every measure of national defence as hostile to the freedom of the subject; and he added, that the motive for opposing the present application could be no other than a desire of *impeding the service and defence of the country*. Resenting this imputation, Mr. Tierney appealed to the chair; and the speaker declared, that, if such language had been used, it was unparliamentary and disorderly; but Mr. Pitt disdained the idea of explanation or apology. The bill quickly passed through both houses; but the animosity of the two members did not end with the debate. Mr. Pitt, being challenged by Mr. Tierney, met him on Putney heath; and a duel ensued; but no injury was received by either of the gentlemen.

*Men of honor*, as the advocates for single combat style themselves, would undoubtedly have censured the minister, if he had not accepted the challenge of the person whom he had offended; and they would also, we think, have blamed Mr. Tierney if he had not insisted either on an apology or an hostile meeting. But it certainly was not necessary for either of the disputants to proceed to extremities, merely to avoid the imputation of cowardice. Allowance should be made for the freedom of debate; and, even if a member should, in a very reprehensible degree, transgress the limits of decorum, the cool dignity of contempt is the best answer to his intemperance,

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A debate which arose from a motion respecting a bill for more effectually manning the navy, led to a duel between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Tierney. When it was proposed by the former, on the 25th of May, that the protections against being forced into the service should be suspended, and that a bill for that purpose should pass through all its stages in the course of that day, the latter objected to such unnecessary precipitation, and hinted at the necessity of watching all the proceedings of the minister with a jealous eye, lest the small remains of liberty should be wrested from the people. Mr. Pitt replied, that his ideas of liberty were very different from those of Mr. Tierney, if this objector considered every measure of national defence as hostile to the freedom of the subject; and he added, that the motive for opposing the present application could be no other than a desire of *impeding the service and defence of the country*. Resenting this imputation, Mr. Tierney appealed to the chair; and the speaker declared, that, if such language had been used, it was unparliamentary and disorderly; but Mr. Pitt disdained the idea of explanation or apology. The bill quickly passed through both houses; but the animosity of the two members did not end with the debate. Mr. Pitt, being challenged by Mr. Tierney, met him on Putney heath; and a duel ensued; but no injury was received by either of the gentlemen.

*Men of honor*, as the advocates for single combat style themselves, would undoubtedly have censured the minister, if he had not accepted the challenge of the person whom he had offended; and they would also, we think, have blamed Mr. Tierney if he had not insisted either on an apology or an hostile meeting. But it certainly was not necessary for either of the disputants to proceed to extremities, merely to avoid the imputation of cowardice. Allowance should be made for the freedom of debate; and, even if a member should, in a very reprehensible degree, transgress the limits of decorum, the cool dignity of contempt is the best answer to his intemperance,

The licentiousness of the editors of anti-ministerial newspapers being a frequent subject of complaint among the friends of the court, the attorney-general undertook the task of checking this abuse of the liberty of the press by a new bill, calculated to *fix responsibility*, and prevent an evasion of punishment for seditious or libellous paragraphs. This bill, said the framer of it, would *restore* the liberty of the press, and secure it against 'non-responsible licentiousness.' Other members, however, condemned the bill as having a very different tendency; but the opposers of the measure could not prevent its adoption.

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The business of the session being completed, his majesty prorogued the two houses on the 29th of June. The chief features of his speech were praises of the proceedings of parliament, boasts of the flourishing state of commerce, commendations of the late display of loyal zeal, and hopes of a speedy suppression of the Irish rebellion.

During the session, by an impotent mark of resentment, the name of the leader of opposition was erased from the list of privy counsellors. The immediate cause of this exclusion of Mr. Fox from an assembly attended only by his adversaries, was an attack which he made on the system of the court in a speech delivered (on the first of May) at a meeting of the Whig club.

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troops became impracticable ; and, the next morning, they were attacked by a far superior number of republicans. They fought for some time with great intrepidity, animated by the example of their commander, who was severely wounded in the action. At length, they were obliged to surrender themselves prisoners of war, to the number of above 1100 individuals. The killed, wounded, and missing, were about 150. We shall make no other remark on this expedition, than that its success and advantages have been greatly exaggerated.

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## I R E L A N D.

The commotions of the Hibernian kingdom, which might perhaps have been prevented by early prudence, at length assumed the complexion of treason and rebellion. The malcontent leaders, without waiting for such assistance as the French might be disposed to afford them, resolved to have recourse to arms for the assertion of their supposed rights. They formed a plan for an attack of the friends of government in the chief seat of their power, the metropolis of the kingdom. While they were preparing for the execution of this bold scheme, some of them were apprehended and imprisoned. Lord Edward Fitzgerald, being discovered at a house in Dublin, fiercely resisted those who attempted to seize him; but, being wounded in the conflict, he was overpowered and taken into custody. The agitation and anxiety of his mind increasing the ill effect of his wounds, he did not long linger in prison.

As the critical state of affairs required great vigilance and precaution, the proceedings of the government were proportioned to the danger. The 23d of May was the day appointed for the rebellious attack of the capital; but the strong measures which were adopted prevented the execution of that scheme. Early on the 24th, however, about 1000 men, furnished with pikes and musquets, approached the town of Naas, and made an assault upon the king's troops. They fought with spirit, though not with perseverance. Being firmly opposed, they fled with precipitation. Above 100 of them were killed. In another engagement, on the hills of Kilcullen, a greater number fell. Skirmishes, in some of which the insurgents had the advantage, occurred on the same day in various parts.

The open hostilities of the disaffected party excited such resentment, that a resolution was hastily adopted by the lord-lieutenant and council, for the summary punishment of the rebels and their assistants by the cruelties of martial law. A proclamation to that effect was officially announced. When it was under consideration in the house of commons, colonel Maxwell recommended an extension of the same code to the persons who had been imprisoned on suspicion of treasonable guilt. Other members, whose zeal was equally warm, wished for the exercise of a rigor which they affected to deem necessary; but lord Castlereagh deprecated the measure, justly observing, that it would brand the administration of the viceroy with the imputation of cruelty, and reduce it to the same degraded and sanguinary level with that government which aimed at the destruction of our happy constitution. The house did not acquiesce in the colonel's proposals, but merely sanctioned the proclamation.

It cannot be expected that we should detail every action between the rebels and the king's forces: it will be sufficient for our narrow limits to mention the more important engagements. Near Dunlavin, 3000 of the insurgents were encountered by a detachment of militia and yeomanry, and



totally defeated, with the loss of about 300 men. On the hill of Taragh, 350 of their party are said to have lost their lives, in a conflict which, according to the official account, proved fatal to only nine of their adversaries. At Catherlogh, about 400 fell.

The flames of rebellion were not prevented from spreading by the vigorous efforts of those who wished to extinguish them. Insurrections broke out in the southern parts of the province of Leinster; and it was apprehended that the strength of the malcontents would exert itself more effectually in those districts. In the mean time, however, many of their brethren in the neighbourhood of Dublin delivered up their arms, and even surrendered some of their leaders. Another party, when sir James Duff advanced to take possession of Kildare, seemed inclined to follow that example; but, some individuals firing at the yeomen who were sent by sir James to demand submission, his troops fiercely assailed the rebels, and killed 200 of them. Newtown-Barry being attacked by a considerable body, the militia of King's-county acted with such vigor, that the insurgents were routed with great slaughter.

At New-Ross, in the shire of Wexford, the rebels sustained a greater loss than in any former engagement. On the 5th of June, they attacked major-general Johnson, and maintained the contest for several hours; but were at length repelled. It is said, in the Gazette, that their loss was 'prodigiously great.' A private letter states that it amounted to 3000; but this is evidently an exaggeration: perhaps one half of that number fell. On the part of the victors, of whom (it is said) only about 100 were killed, the most lamented death was that of lord Mountjoy.

The north of Ireland, though less agitated than the south, was not free from commotion. An armed party seized the town of Antrim, of which, however, the friends of the government soon regained possession. After some inconsiderable conflicts, major-general Nugent defeated a numerous

body near Ballinahinch on the 12th, killing about 400; a victory which produced the submission of a great number of the rebels. Monro, one of their leaders, would have been delivered up by his accomplices; but his capture rendered that act of treachery unnecessary.

The chief rebel force was now in the south. A considerable body engaged major-general Needham at Arklow, and sustained for some hours an incessant fire of grape-shot. Confusion then arose among the diminished ranks of the assailants, who fled in various directions. At Wexford the party resolved to make a firm stand; and, on the other hand, the government made great preparations for crushing the remains of rebellious opposition by surrounding the foe at that town.

The rebellion still wearing an aspect of terror, his majesty was advised to send to Ireland a nobleman whose military fame and general reputation might make an impression on the enemy, favorable to the speedy return of peace. A peer of this description was the marquis Cornwallis, who was therefore commissioned to supersede earl Camden. He landed at Dublin on the 20th of June; and he immediately devoted his attention to the momentous concerns of his station, and to the best means of restoring order and tranquillity.

The new viceroy had scarcely entered upon his office, when he was gratified with intelligence of advantages obtained in the south. The strong post of Enniscorthy was assaulted on the 21st by general Lake, and was forced, but with small loss of the defenders. Brigadier Moore, having defeated and dispersed a rebel *corps*, took post near Wexford; and his appearance so intimidated the insurgents, that they relinquished all thoughts of defending the town, and sent proposals of submission, which were answered by a declaration, importing that no attention would be paid to any 'terms offered by rebels in arms against their sovereign.' They now fled in confusion, and the royalists took quiet possession of Wexford. Sir Thomas Williams, who had been ordered to

dered as calumnious charges, proceeding from the rancor of party rather than from just grounds of suspicion. *Reform*, says a ministerial senator, is synonymous with *revolution*; and those who profess the *one*, aim at the *other*. However we may be inclined to controvert this opinion, we must allow that it is very prevalent. Many of those who entertain it would probably have rejoiced, if the individuals who were tried in London upon a charge of treason, in the year 1794, had been condemned and put to death on no stronger evidence than was then adduced. But the moderate, the liberal, and the judicious, applauded the humanity and the patriotism displayed by the jurors in their decisions upon those trials. The zealots, however, continued to stigmatise as delinquents those who were pronounced innocent by a legal verdict; and, when Mr. O'Connor and other suspected persons were apprehended at Margate, the hopes of vengeance, which a candid jury had disappointed, revived with additional strength.

Though the apprehension of the supposed mal-contents took place so early as the 28th of February, their trials did not commence before the 21st of May. The judges Buller, Heath, and Laurence, presided on the occasion. After some animadversions on the unjustifiable behaviour of the *reverend* Arthur Young, who had endeavoured to prejudice the minds of several of the summoned jurymen against the prisoners ('with a view that they should go into court *avowedly determined* in their verdict, *no matter what the evidence*\*'), the selection of jurors took place amidst various challenges both from the crown and the prisoners; and the attorney-general stated the charges adduced against the latter, and the grounds on which the accusation rested. It could be proved, he said, that James O'Coigly, John Allen, and Jeremiah Leary, had repaired in February to an inn at Margate, where they were joined by Arthur O'Connor and John Binns; that O'Coigly and the two last-mentioned individuals assumed names which did not belong to them; and that Binns had previously bar-

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\* These words occur in a letter written by Mr. Young.

gained, both at Whitstable and at Deal, for a vessel to convey him and his friends to one of the ports of France or of Holland. The meeting of all the five at Margate, he added, seemed to be preconcerted, though they pretended that they were not acquainted with each other. When they were apprehended, a pocket-book belonging to O'Coigly was found, containing an address from the 'secret committee of England to the executive directory of France.'

In this paper the *committee* requested the *great nation* to 'pour forth its gigantic force,' that an oppressed people might 'carol forth the praises of France at the altar of liberty;' promised that Englishmen would be ready to second the efforts of the French; and stated, that the system of borrowing, 'which had hitherto enabled our tyrants to disturb the peace of a whole world,' was at an end; that disaffection prevailed both in the army and navy; and that Englishmen, seeing themselves 'every day bereft of some part of the poor fragment of democracy which they had hitherto enjoyed,' had become sensible of the necessity of preparing a new constitution. Not only the partisans of the ministry, but the parliamentary members of opposition, were censured in this address. It was said to be the 'interest of each faction to keep the people in the dark;' and the anti-ministerial declaimers were represented as unworthy of confidence, since, 'under the semblance of moderate reform,' they 'only wished to climb into power.'

Of the treasonable views of the framers of this address, no doubt, said the attorney-general, could be entertained; and, though it was not absolutely certain that all the prisoners were acquainted with its purport, it was highly probable that they were. He read some papers, which, he thought, tended to prove that O'Connor, in particular, intended to go to France, and that he was privy to the scheme of sending or conveying the address to that country. He also produced a paper from which it appeared that O'Coigly had before visited France; and, referring to a passage in the address,

which intimated that the citizen who would deliver it had, on a former occasion, communicated to the directory the sentiments of the committee, he thought it reasonable to conclude, from all the circumstances, that O'Coigly meditated an immediate voyage to France as the bearer of the traitorous invitation.

The witnesses for the crown were then examined at considerable length; and, on the following day, Mr. Plomer, in an elaborate speech, defended O'Connor, rather than any of the other prisoners, against the charges adduced. He spoke of him as a man who, by his talents and good qualities, had acquired the friendship and esteem of persons of great merit and distinction, and who, though an advocate for particular reforms, had never shown himself hostile to the constitution. He denied that his client had the least connexion with the political societies established for the promotion of pure reform or for worse purposes; and he ridiculed the idea of his concern in the alleged invitation to the French, not only from the absurdity and falsehood of various parts of the address, but from the great improbability of his concurring in a paper which pointed out, as betrayers of the cause of liberty, and as marks for the vengeance of the foe, the very men with whom he had lived in habits of cordial intimacy. He admitted, that O'Connor was desirous of quitting the kingdom; but affirmed, that no *proof* existed of his intention of repairing to France to solicit an invasion from the enemy, and that even a *presumption* of such criminality was too unreasonable to be cherished by persons of any candor or liberality.

When Mr. Gurney and other barristers had harangued the court in behalf of Biens, Allen, and Leary, some witnesses were brought forward with a view of invalidating the charges; and the character of Mr. O'Connor was represented in a very favorable light by the earls of Suffolk and Thanet, messieurs Fox, Sheridan, Erskine, and other gentlemen of the anti-ministerial party. The eloquence of Mr. Dallas was then

exerted in the defence of the accused persons ; and O'Coigly, speaking for himself, declared that he ' never was the bearer of any letter or message to the directory of France,' and that the ' absurd and ridiculous' address to which the counsel had referred ' was not his paper.' Sir Francis Buller summed up the evidence in a fair and accurate manner ; and the jury, after some deliberation, declared O'Coigly guilty, but acquitted the four other prisoners.

The judge had no sooner pronounced sentence of death upon O'Coigly, than a disturbance arose. Mr. O'Connor was preparing to quit the court, when some civil officers stopped him. Some of the spectators interposing in his behalf, soldiers rushed in ; blows were interchanged ; and general confusion prevailed. Tranquillity, however, was soon restored ; and, it being intimated to O'Connor, that he could not be liberated, as a warrant for his arrest upon another charge, dated on the 22d of March, had been signed by the duke of Portland, he was re-conducted to prison.

As the evidence of the guilt of O'Coigly was sufficiently strong, it was not to be expected that he would receive a pardon. On the 7th of June, he was conveyed to Pennenden heath, near Maidstone ; and, after solemn declarations of his innocence, he was hanged till life seemed totally extinguished, and was then decapitated. He was the son of an Irish farmer ; and not being wholly illiterate, had been ordained a priest of the Romish church. He entered into the views of the malcontents of Ireland, and, when he was in danger of being seized, came over to England, where he was so closely watched, that he could not execute (what we may fairly conclude to have been) his intentions of repairing to France, and joining the enemies of his sovereign.

The case of Mr. O'Connor occasioned some observations in both houses of parliament. Those which lord Holland made in the house of peers tended to accuse the ministry of having infringed a clause in the late bill for the suspension of the *habeas-corpus* act, by which it was ordained, that persons who

were in custody at the time of its enactment should be tried as if no such bill had passed. The lord-chancellor replied, that the clause did not preclude the government from detaining Mr. O'Connor for an offence distinct from that for which he was in custody at the time in question.—In the other house, Mr. St.-John entered into a detail of the cases both of Arthur and Roger O'Connor, and animadverted on the injustice of detaining those individuals as prisoners; but a motion which he made on the subject was rejected.

Of the debates which occurred between the beginning of May and the close of the session, some were uninteresting. Among other subjects of discussion, the nature of the bill for the redemption of the land-tax \* was repeatedly investigated. The chancellor of the exchequer proposed, that an alteration should be made in favor of the proprietor of the land, who, if he should be inclined to purchase the tax with which it was burthened, might complete his bargain by the transfer of stock productive (in its annual dividend) of a tenth part beyond the amount of the impost; but that a third person who should become a purchaser should, according to the original plan, be required to add a fifth part. This point will be perfectly clear to every one of our readers, if we state, that, where an owner of land pays for it a tax of fifteen pounds *per annum*, he may redeem it with stock which will produce sixteen pounds ten shillings in the year; while another individual who may purchase a tax to that amount, will be obliged to give in exchange a dividend of eighteen pounds *per annum*. The proposal was adopted by the house; but the bill was opposed by lord Sheffield, sir John Sinclair, and other members; and Mr. Hussey lamented that, instead of regulating the land-tax upon equitable principles, the house should be disposed to perpetuate the inequality of that partial impost. In the upper house, the political veteran lord Thurlow, and the juvenile orator lord Holland, condemned the plan both in principle and in detail. It was

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When Mr. Gurney and other barristers had harangued the court in behalf of Binns, Allen, and Leary, some witnesses were brought forward with a view of invalidating the charges; and the character of Mr. O'Connor was represented in a very favorable light by the earls of Suffolk and Thanet, messieurs Fox, Sheridan, Erskine, and other gentlemen of the anti-ministerial party. The eloquence of Mr. Dallas was then

exerted in the defence of the accused persons ; and O'Coigly, speaking for himself, declared that he ' never was the bearer of any letter or message to the directory of France,' and that the ' absurd and ridiculous' address to which the counsel had referred ' was not his paper.' Sir Francis Buller summed up the evidence in a fair and accurate manner ; and the jury, after some deliberation, declared O'Coigly guilty, but acquitted the four other prisoners.

The judge had no sooner pronounced sentence of death upon O'Coigly, than a disturbance arose. Mr. O'Connor was preparing to quit the court, when some civil officers stopped him. Some of the spectators interposing in his behalf, soldiers rushed in ; blows were interchanged ; and general confusion prevailed. Tranquillity, however, was soon restored ; and, it being intimated to O'Connor, that he could not be liberated, as a warrant for his arrest upon another charge, dated on the 22d of March, had been signed by the duke of Portland, he was re-conducted to prison.

As the evidence of the guilt of O'Coigly was sufficiently strong, it was not to be expected that he would receive a pardon. On the 7th of June, he was conveyed to Pennenden heath, near Maidstone ; and, after solemn declarations of his innocence, he was hanged till life seemed totally extinguished, and was then decapitated. He was the son of an Irish farmer ; and not being wholly illiterate, had been ordained a priest of the Romish church. He entered into the views of the malcontents of Ireland, and, when he was in danger of being seized, came over to England, where he was so closely watched, that he could not execute (what we may fairly conclude to have been) his intentions of repairing to France, and joining the enemies of his sovereign.

The case of Mr. O'Connor occasioned some observations in both houses of parliament. Those which lord Holland made in the house of peers tended to accuse the ministry of having infringed a clause in the late bill for the suspension of the *habeas-corpus* act, by which it was ordained, that persons who

were in custody at the time of its enactment should be tried as if no such bill had passed. The lord-chancellor replied, that the clause did not preclude the government from detaining Mr. O'Connor for an offence distinct from that for which he was in custody at the time in question.—In the other house, Mr. St.-John entered into a detail of the cases both of Arthur and Roger O'Connor, and animadverted on the injustice of detaining those individuals as prisoners; but a motion which he made on the subject was rejected.

Of the debates which occurred between the beginning of May and the close of the session, some were uninteresting. Among other subjects of discussion, the nature of the bill for the redemption of the land-tax \* was repeatedly investigated. The chancellor of the exchequer proposed, that an alteration should be made in favor of the proprietor of the land, who, if he should be inclined to purchase the tax with which it was burthened, might complete his bargain by the transfer of stock productive (in its annual dividend) of a tenth part beyond the amount of the impost; but that a third person who should become a purchaser should, according to the original plan, be required to add a fifth part. This point will be perfectly clear to every one of our readers, if we state, that, where an owner of land pays for it a tax of fifteen pounds *per annum*, he may redeem it with stock which will produce sixteen pounds ten shillings in the year; while another individual who may purchase a tax to that amount, will be obliged to give in exchange a dividend of eighteen pounds *per annum*. The proposal was adopted by the house; but the bill was opposed by lord Sheffield, sir John Sinclair, and other members; and Mr. Hussey lamented that, instead of regulating the land-tax upon equitable principles, the house should be disposed to perpetuate the inequality of that partial impost. In the upper house, the political veteran lord Thurlow, and the juvenile orator lord Holland, condemned the plan both in principle and in detail. It was

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\* See the 569th page of our last Appendix.

plausibly defended by the lords Auckland and Grenville, and sanctioned by a great majority.

A debate which arose from a motion respecting a bill for more effectually manning the navy, led to a duel between Mr. Pitt and Mr. Tierney. When it was proposed by the former, on the 25th of May, that the protections against being forced into the service should be suspended, and that a bill for that purpose should pass through all its stages in the course of that day, the latter objected to such unnecessary precipitation, and hinted at the necessity of watching all the proceedings of the minister with a jealous eye, lest the small remains of liberty should be wrested from the people. Mr. Pitt replied, that his ideas of liberty were very different from those of Mr. Tierney, if this objector considered every measure of national defence as hostile to the freedom of the subject; and he added, that the motive for opposing the present application could be no other than a desire of *impeding the service and defence of the country*. Resenting this imputation, Mr. Tierney appealed to the chair; and the speaker declared, that, if such language had been used, it was unparliamentary and disorderly; but Mr. Pitt disdained the idea of explanation or apology. The bill quickly passed through both houses; but the animosity of the two members did not end with the debate. Mr. Pitt, being challenged by Mr. Tierney, met him on Putney heath; and a duel ensued; but no injury was received by either of the gentlemen.

*Men of honor*, as the advocates for single combat style themselves, would undoubtedly have censured the minister, if he had not accepted the challenge of the person whom he had offended; and they would also, we think, have blamed Mr. Tierney if he had not insisted either on an apology or an hostile meeting. But it certainly was not necessary for either of the disputants to proceed to extremities, merely to avoid the imputation of cowardice. Allowance should be made for the freedom of debate; and, even if a member should, in a very reprehensible degree, transgress the limits of decorum, the cool dignity of contempt is the best answer to his intemperance.



The licentiousness of the editors of anti-ministerial newspapers being a frequent subject of complaint among the friends of the court, the attorney-general undertook the task of checking this abuse of the liberty of the press by a new bill, calculated to *fix responsibility*, and prevent an evasion of punishment for seditious or libellous paragraphs. This bill, said the framer of it, would *restore* the liberty of the press, and secure it against 'non-responsible licentiousness.' Other members, however, condemned the bill as having a very different tendency; but the opposers of the measure could not prevent its adoption.

The disturbances in Ireland gave rise to various debates. Mr. Sheridan moved, on the 14th of June, that a committee should be appointed to inquire into the causes of the rebellion which had broken out in that kingdom; but, after a *private* discussion of the subject (for the gallery of the house was shut against all strangers, and those who might have procured intelligence from members were strictly prohibited from publishing any account of the proceedings), the motion was rejected by a majority of 116. A proposed address, remonstrating against the system pursued with regard to Ireland, was also exploded. On the following day, the duke of Leinster urged the peers to vote an address, requesting full information relative to 'Hibernian affairs, and promising a complete investigation of the causes, nature, and extent of the prevailing disorders. The dukes of Devonshire and Bedford, and several other peers, supported the motion; but, on a division, a considerable majority appeared against it. On the 18th a message from the king was delivered, desiring that he might be enabled to accept the services of such regiments of the British militia as might wish to be employed against the Irish rebels. When Mr. Dundas moved for an address of assent, Mr. Sheridan and other speakers were unwilling to trust the ministers with the power of sending the militia out of the kingdom, as it was inconsistent with the express conditions on which that body was first established. The address,

however, was sanctioned. The concerns of Ireland were again discussed on the 22d, when lord George Cavendish in vain recommended an inquiry, with a view to the adoption of a conciliatory system. Among the peers, a motion from the earl of Besborough, and one from the duke of Bedford, tending to the same object, furnished fresh proofs of the inutility of contending against the court.

The business of the session being completed, his majesty prorogued the two houses on the 29th of June. The chief features of his speech were praises of the proceedings of parliament, boasts of the flourishing state of commerce, commendations of the late display of loyal zeal, and hopes of a speedy suppression of the Irish rebellion.

During the session, by an impotent mark of resentment, the name of the leader of opposition was erased from the list of privy counsellors. The immediate cause of this exclusion of Mr. Fox from an assembly attended only by his adversaries, was an attack which he made on the system of the court in a speech delivered (on the first of May) at a meeting of the Whig club.

The incidents of the war, in this part of the year, were not very important. As the small islands of St. Marcou, near La Hogue, had been seized by the English, and were used as posts of observation, the French, on the 7th of May, sent a *flotilla* of gun-boats to dislodge the intruders: but the defenders of the isles made so firm a resistance, that the assailants were repelled with considerable loss. In the same month, commodore Popham and major-general Coote sailed towards Ostend, to attempt the destruction of sluices and other works. A body of soldiers, on the 19th, landed to the eastward of that town; which, during the disembarkation, was set on fire in different parts by bombs. The gates and sluices of the canal leading to Bruges, were blown up by well-contrived mines; and, in this service, the zeal and attention of lieutenant Brownrigg were, (says the major-general) eminently conspicuous. But, from the violence of the wind and the surf, the re-embarkation of the

troops became impracticable ; and, the next morning, they were attacked by a far superior number of republicans. They fought for some time with great intrepidity, animated by the example of their commander, who was severely wounded in the action. At length, they were obliged to surrender themselves prisoners of war, to the number of above 1100 individuals. The killed, wounded, and missing, were about 150. We shall make no other remark on this expedition, than that its success and advantages have been greatly exaggerated.

Before we enter upon other parts of our general survey, the alacrity of the higher and middling classes in Great-Britain, in forming defensive associations, must be mentioned with that applause which is due to patriotic zeal. But we by no means concur with those prejudiced and illiberal men who consider a reluctance to arming as a mark of disaffection, and represent themselves as the only true friends of their country.

## I R E L A N D.

The commotions of the Hibernian kingdom, which might perhaps have been prevented by early prudence, at length assumed the complexion of treason and rebellion. The malcontent leaders, without waiting for such assistance as the French might be disposed to afford them, resolved to have recourse to arms for the assertion of their supposed rights. They formed a plan for an attack of the friends of government in the chief seat of their power, the metropolis of the kingdom. While they were preparing for the execution of this bold scheme, some of them were apprehended and imprisoned. Lord Edward Fitzgerald, being discovered at a house in Dublin, fiercely resisted those who attempted to seize him; but, being wounded in the conflict, he was overpowered and taken into custody. The agitation and anxiety of his mind increasing the ill effect of his wounds, he did not long linger in prison.

As the critical state of affairs required great vigilance and precaution, the proceedings of the government were proportioned to the danger. The 23d of May was the day appointed for the rebellious attack of the capital; but the strong measures which were adopted prevented the execution of that scheme. Early on the 24th, however, about 1000 men, furnished with pikes and musquets, approached the town of Naas, and made an assault upon the king's troops. They fought with spirit, though not with perseverance. Being firmly opposed, they fled with precipitation. Above 100 of them were killed. In another engagement, on the hills of Kilcullen, a greater number fell. Skirmishes, in some of which the insurgents had the advantage, occurred on the same day in various parts.

The open hostilities of the disaffected party excited such resentment, that a resolution was hastily adopted by the lord-lieutenant and council, for the summary punishment of the rebels and their assistants by the cruelties of martial law. A proclamation to that effect was officially announced. When it was under consideration in the house of commons, colonel Maxwell recommended an extension of the same code to the persons who had been imprisoned on suspicion of treasonable guilt. Other members, whose zeal was equally warm, wished for the exercise of a rigor which they affected to deem necessary; but lord Castlereagh deprecated the measure, justly observing, that it would brand the administration of the viceroy with the imputation of cruelty, and reduce it to the same degraded and sanguinary level with that government which aimed at the destruction of our happy constitution. The house did not acquiesce in the colonel's proposals, but merely sanctioned the proclamation.

It cannot be expected that we should detail every action between the rebels and the king's forces: it will be sufficient for our narrow limits to mention the more important engagements. Near Dunlavin, 3000 of the insurgents were encountered by a detachment of militia and yeomanry, and

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